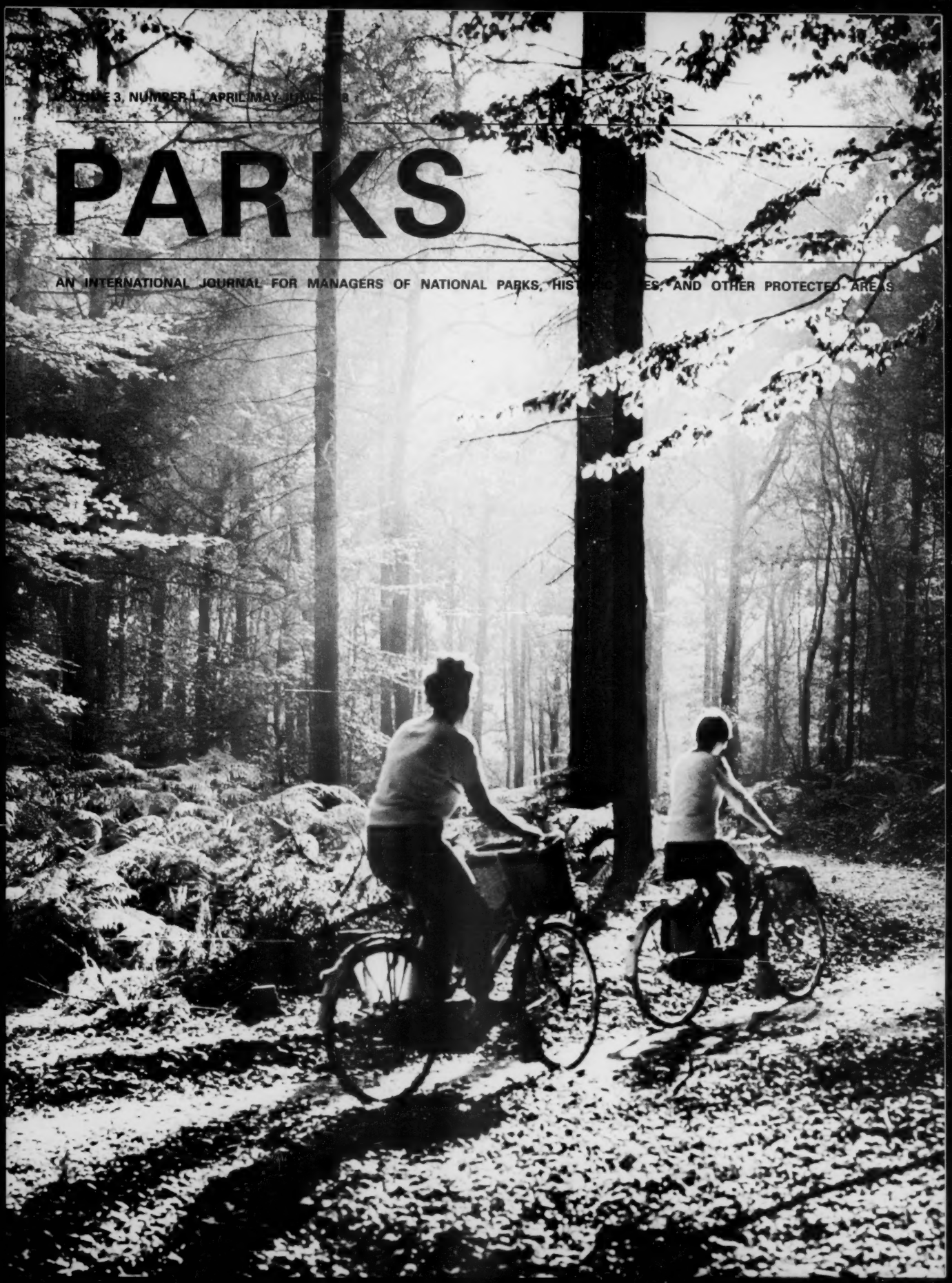
VOLUME 3, NUMBER 1, APRIL-MAY-JUNE 19[illegible]

PARKS

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR MANAGERS OF NATIONAL PARKS, HIST[illegible]ES, AND OTHER PROTECTED AREAS



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Front cover: Quiet woods and filtered sunlight provide a perfect setting for cycling or walking in Veluwezoom National Park, one of three existing National Parks in the Netherlands. Photo: Wim K. Steffen. Back cover: Wetlands rich in aquatic and avian life are found throughout the Netherlands. This is Lake Naarden. Photo: Jan van de Kam.

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Edwin N. Winge

Involving the Public in Park Planning: U.S.A.

During the past 10 years an important new element — public involvement — has brought about a fundamental change in the decision-making process of the U. S. National Park Service.

This development began rather modestly in 1969 when the Secretary of the Interior, parent department of the National Park Service, directed that agency to hold public meetings on proposed Master Plans for individual park areas *before* the document was approved.

The purpose was to make it possible for interested individuals and organizations to examine the Master Plan when it was still in draft form and make suggestions that could be considered in shaping the plan.

Prior to this Secretarial directive, most decisions involving the National Parks were made in relative isolation, at least as far as the general public was concerned. The Congress, which controls the purse strings, was consulted, of course. And the leaders of certain national conservation organizations were usually asked for their views — mostly because they insisted on being heard.

But basically, the National Park Service executives took the attitude that they were the experts; that it was their responsibility not only to define the problem but also to provide the solution. Public involvement, if indeed it could be called that, amounted to no more than an after-the-fact effort to persuade the public that the Service had made the right decisions.

It was, admittedly, an elitist philosophy and an authoritarian style of management — no matter how noble the motive — that has since been discarded.

Through a combination of legislative and administrative actions the opportunities for direct public involvement have been enormously expanded.

Although public involvement originally was sought only for planning efforts, the Park Service has in recent years opened up the full range of its policy and decision-making process to the public view, including operational matters.

Thus, public involvement is being aggressively pursued in such controversial issues as management of the use of the Colorado River through Grand Canyon National Park, the feral burro removal programs in Grand Canyon and Death Valley, back country management, and programs for management of flora and fauna.

Moreover, the National Park Service has made intensive efforts to obtain the widest possible range of public opinion by reaching out to contact people who ordinarily would not be involved in the decision-making process, such as ethnic minority groups, youngsters, senior citizens and handicapped persons.

The Wilderness Act of 1964 provided the first legislative mandate for public involvement. It required that the National Park Service and other Federal land management agencies hold public hearings on proposals to establish wilderness areas within National Parks, National Forests, National Wildlife Refuges, and Bureau of Land Management units before such proposals could be submitted to the Congress. In this way the Federal agencies would have the benefit of private citizen viewpoints before making final recommendations to the Congress.

However, it was the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA) that really opened wide the doors to citizen participation in the planning processes of Federal land management agencies.

NEPA, it has been said, represents a revolutionary extension of the democratic process. In the past, government officials were responsible only to their superiors in government. NEPA modified this burden of responsibility, making the Federal bureaucracy also directly accountable to the people.

The law (NEPA) accomplished this by creating a new American institution . . . the Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). This law requires that every major Federal project must be accompanied by an EIS in which the agency doing the work lists the environmental gains and losses of the action, along with all possible alternatives to the proposed course of action.

Further, before a decision is made, the agency must provide a reasonable period of time for other Federal agencies, State and local governments and members of the public to examine and comment upon the proposed project.

The Act requires that the concerned Federal agency must not only consider the comments of other agencies and the public but that the final Environmental Impact Statement must address those comments and be responsive to them.

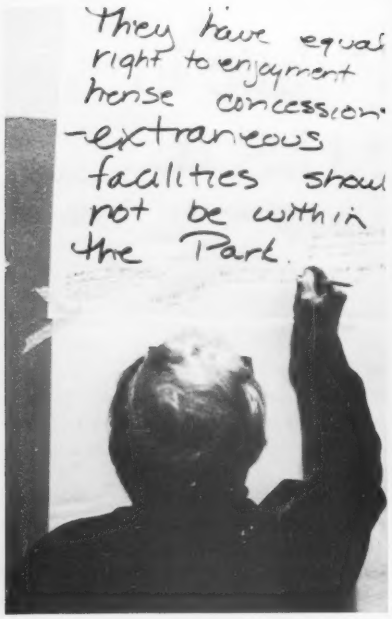
If the environmental statement is not responsive, the aggrieved party may file suit in Federal Court charging the agency concerned with violating the law. This prospect of a law suit is no idle threat. Over 800 such law suits have been filed in the years since NEPA has been in effect.

Following the enactment of NEPA, the National Park Service has made strong efforts to comply not only with the letter but with the spirit of the law.

Park superintendents and planners have been given special training in the effective techniques of public involvement, including methods of locating publics, informing them of the issues, analyzing and evaluating their comments, and developing a media relations program.

Superintendents have been encouraged to involve the public at an even earlier stage of the decision-making process by holding informal workshops where ideas and suggestions from the public are obtained before the Master Plan team starts to draw up the preliminary draft of the plan.

In addition to public meetings on specific planning projects, the Park Service utilizes on a continuing basis a number of citizen advisory groups. At the present time, there are some 37 separate Advisory Boards, Commissions and Committees, ranging in scope from the national, through the regional to the local park level. The first such group, the Washington National Monument Society, was organized in 1833, while one of the most recent, the Golden Gate National Recreation Advisory Commission, was appointed by the Secretary of the Interior in 1974.



Left, large tearsheets such as this one at a Yosemite meeting were used by citizens to record suggestions for future park plans. Right, Park Superintendents have been encouraged to involve the public early in the planning process by holding informal "workshops" where ideas and suggestions are obtained before preliminary Master Plans are drafted. Thirty-four such public meetings were held in California alone in connection with new plans for Yosemite National Park.

Members of these citizen advisory groups are frequently called upon by the Park Service to preside at public meetings concerning Master Plans and other issues.

In the case of the Golden Gate National Recreation Area, a series of meetings of the Park's Advisory Commission since 1974 has served as a vehicle for obtaining direct public input on vital park issues, as well as comments from the public on the proposed Master Plan.

Although explicit guidelines on policies and procedures are provided by the national and regional headquarters offices of the Park Service, the ultimate responsibility for an effective public involvement program lies with the superintendent of the park.

William J. Whalen, Director of the Service, told a recent national conference of park superintendents:

"Public involvement works best when people are adequately informed. Those who enjoy and love the parks need assistance if they are to contribute to park planning. This requires the open sharing of all information at all levels of the organization, but it is at the park level that the most productive relationship is developed."

Whalen was speaking from experience. Prior to his appointment as Director of the Service in 1977, he served for 4½ years as Superintendent of the Golden Gate NRA and then as General Manager, Bay Area National Parks, a 100,100-acre (40,510 ha) Federal park complex in the San Francisco Bay Area.

The planning effort for this new Federal park (it was established in 1972) has been accompanied by one of the most complex and extensive public involvement programs ever undertaken by the Service.

"We learned one lesson," Whalen recalled. "It is essential that we identify and surface, at the earliest stage of public review, the difficult problems and thorny issues that have the greatest potential for causing public concern and reaction.

"By allowing the public the fullest possible involvement in developing alternative solutions we can build open lines of communication and trust between us and the many segments of concerned citizenry. Only by furnishing opportunities for people to learn about and participate in this process can we insure needed public understanding of our programs and priorities."

The Golden Gate NRA planning effort began in October 1974 with a series of orientation workshops to meet with people where they lived and solicit their ideas on what the park should include. Some 500 organizations in the Bay Area were contacted by letter and telephone and 125 workshops were held in the city and suburbs, resulting in a geographic as well as a socio-economic response to park planners as to what people wanted to see in the park.

The second phase was more complicated and sophisticated, consisting of 15 formulation workshops held in the fall of 1975 and attended by some 1,500 peor' . Informational literature was distributed prior to the meetings. To e..ourage discussion, attendees were divided into small discussion groups.

The third phase, mentioned above, was a series of six meetings of the GGNRA's Advisory Commission in the summer and fall of 1977 at which planning alternatives were presented by staff members, with followup reaction from the public, totalling some 25 hours of oral comment.

When the public response was assembled, GGNRA planners found themselves with the massive task of analyzing more than 1,300 pages of meeting comments, letters and position papers. Once public sentiment had been analyzed and summarized, the staff prepared preliminary recommendations for the draft Master Plan which were exposed to public review and comment in another series of meetings of the Advisory Commission, held early in 1978.

A comprehensive draft Plan is expected to be ready for public review during the summer of 1978

Barring unforeseen complications, a final, approved Master Plan for the park should be ready for implementation by the end of 1978, some four years after the start of the planning process.

An equally complex and sophisticated public involvement program has accompanied the planning effort for California's world-renowned Yosemite National Park during the past three years.

The effort to develop a new Master Plan for Yosemite had been underway since 1968 and a draft plan was almost ready for submission to the public late in 1974 when it was abruptly rejected by the Department of the Interior on the grounds that it was vague and ambiguous and that public involvement had been inadequate.

A fresh start was ordered on the planning process that provided for public involvement from the outset. To demonstrate its commitment, the Park Service assigned a full-time, professional public affairs person to the Master Plan team for the sole purpose of making public involvement effective.

Many Californians have a strong proprietary feeling about Yosemite and this was reflected in their response to the Park Service call for public participation in the Yosemite planning process.

A total of 34 public involvement workshops were held in California, and 14 others were held in major cities across the United States, attesting to the national interest and concern about Yosemite.

From ideas generated at the workshops, a workbook was developed incorporating some 700 alternative choices or options for specific matters at Yosemite. Nearly 60,000 persons asked for and received copies of the workbooks. More than one-third of them — 20,000 — completed the laborious and time-consuming exercise (average time: 4 hours) and returned their answer sheets. The team also heard from some 70 organizations.

Master Plan and Environmental Statement drafts for Yosemite are now being prepared for public review and comment later in 1978.

Before they are brought to fruition, the planning efforts for both Yosemite and Golden Gate NRA each will have consumed over four years, thousands of hours of staff time and hundreds of thousands of dollars in Federal funds.

They represent the most comprehensive public involvement programs thus far associated with National Park Service planning efforts.

There is no question that these extensive public involvement programs have, in each instance, prolonged the planning process. There is no question, either, that the final products that evolve from these efforts, the approved Master Plans, will be better documents and more fully accepted because the public played an important role in shaping their contents.

Public involvement can be expensive and time-consuming, making new demands on the time and energy of the Superintendent and his staff. It is not a panacea, nor does it absolve the Park Service of responsibility for making decisions.

As Director Whalen said recently: "Public involvement does not mean we will exercise our management responsibilities on the basis of a show of hands."

But public involvement does offer long-range benefits, the most pragmatic of which is that it results in better decisions. Park Service managers have discovered through experience that when they are willing to modify their professional judgements by considering the ideas and opinions of concerned citizens, the final decision that results is not only more acceptable to the public, it also is more satisfying to the Service.

Edwin N. Winge is Public Affairs Officer of the Western Regional Office of the National Park Service at San Francisco, California.

Harold K. Eidsvik

Involving the Public in Park Planning: Canada

For many years the planning of national parks was considered to be the responsibility of elected governments and their officials. In North America during the 1960's a growing number of people began to question the right of governments to make decisions which affected a great number of them without their being directly consulted. It was not only a question of consultation, which concerned people, but also a question of being involved in the decision-making process.

Citizen participation has always existed in the park field; however, for many years it was only at the level of what is now called the "Information Model." The government made a decision and the people were informed. A more sophisticated approach, still without much participation, occurred when the government made a decision and then undertook to persuade the public that the decision was the correct one. This was called the "Persuasion Model."

The "Consultation Model" was the next step in the process. In this method, the government agency defined the problem, invited suggestions and then made a decision. This was the process approximated in early public hearings held by Parks Canada. It was effective in soliciting a range of viewpoints on parks such as Banff (1971), Cape Breton Highlands (1970) and on Lake Louise ski area development plans (Banff National Park 1972). The process did provide for considerable public involvement; some 2,500 submissions were received on Lake Louise plans. The process did have an impact on decision-making: e.g., the development proposals for Lake Louise were cancelled. However, the process was often one of confrontation and mutual mistrust. Large audiences provided a platform for talented speakers who often were able to unduly influence the process. The presentation of a single concept in a multi-color document left many participants with the view that decisions had been preconceived.

The "Partnership Model" is a process in which government outlines the limits within which it must work. These are usually of a legislative nature. Citizens are requested to provide background information as well as suggestions related to the future of the park area. Alternative plans are prepared and the citizens are once again consulted as to which aspects of the several alternatives they most favor. Finally a draft plan is prepared for further consultation. The process is a mutual learning process. It is costly and it is time-consuming; however, it has in the past produced excellent results, e.g., Riding Mountain National Park,

Table I: Citizen Participation

The Area of Authority to Decide Vested in Political Bureaus				
Information Model	**Persuasion Model**	**Consultation Model**	**Partnership Model**	**Citizen Control Model**
An authority makes a decision and informs the public about it.	*An authority makes a decision, then persuades the public to accept it.*	*An authority defines the problem, presents it to the public, invites comments and suggestions, then makes a decision.*	*An authority prescribes the limits and within these limits citizens share and may even assume the decision-making responsibility.*	*Citizens have full right to participate in and assume the responsibility for decisions.*
			The Area of Citizen Involvement in the Decision-Making Process	

Source: GOVERNMENT OF CANADA, Man and Resources Conference, Toronto 1972.

Parks Canada. The process produced a plan which was acceptable to everyone concerned. Previous planning efforts without consultation did not produce any "approved" plans.

The final model illustrated is a "Citizen Control Model" in which the public makes decisions and the government carries them out. However, in this model the public and not the government assumes the responsibility for the decision. In the broadest sense of participatory democracy, in the election of governments, the process works. The writer is not aware of parks where the process has been applied.

Each of the public participation models utilize a number of forms to make public contact. Table II lists a number of these forms, such as open public meetings, workshops, advisory groups, etc. The Table then outlines the effectiveness of these forms in relation to certain pre-selected criteria such as the giving or receiving of information. In addition, the Table gives an evaluation of the effectiveness of a particular form in relation to public contact.

In planning public participation, one must overcome on the one hand widespread apathy and, on the other hand, a full spectrum of vested interests or self-appointed saviors expounding their solution to a particular issue. It is the responsibility of the park agency to ensure that the process is creative and not destructive.

As a result of seven years of experimentation, Parks Canada has adopted as a general guideline for public participation the "Partnership Model" mentioned earlier. The decision-making authority under the Canadian parliamentary system is retained by the Minister who is elected and is responsible for the management of the organization. The process is a dynamic one and will very likely continue to change. The current process is as follows:

The Partnership Model

Public participation in the development of master plans occurs primarily in three phases, as shown in Table III:

1. Information Exchange
2. Concept Review
3. Plan Evaluation

Phase I: Information Exchange. The purpose of the public participation process is to engage in a discussion with interested local and national groups to encourage their participation in the planning process, to describe the process, and discuss objectives and issues relative to the park. At this stage no plan has been drafted, a wide range of solutions are sought which include the formulation of park policy and the overall objectives of the park.

Local or regional comment is obtained from meetings held with organizations in communities which relate closely to the park.

The approach is to work as much as possible with small groups, although everyone in the region should have an opportunity to participate. As far as possible, established groups such as the Regional Development Corporation, Municipal Governments, Chambers of Commerce and Natural History Societies are used. For some of these groups one meeting is sufficient, but for those that are strongly interested in having an input additional meetings may be required.

A national point of view on park planning is solicited by identifying wildlife, naturalist and outdoor societies and advising them by letter of the public participation process that is being followed in developing a plan for the park and inviting their participation. Meetings may have to be held in selected centers to obtain the involvement of these groups.

It is important at an early stage to have consultation with other levels of government, to obtain their views and ensure their cooperation and support throughout the process of developing the park plan.

During this and subsequent phases, a newsletter is circulated to interested groups to encourage and sustain a public awareness of the process being followed in developing a park plan.

Phase II: Concept Review. This phase will follow up the public meetings which took place under the information exchange program in order to review planning concepts with interested local and national organizations to obtain new ideas, receive a public evaluation of the merits of alternative proposals, and to expose the organizations' thinking to the public on the appropriate kinds of solutions to meet the planning objectives. The necessary research and analysis to support the various concepts must be available. For some groups, again, there may be a need for more than one meeting.

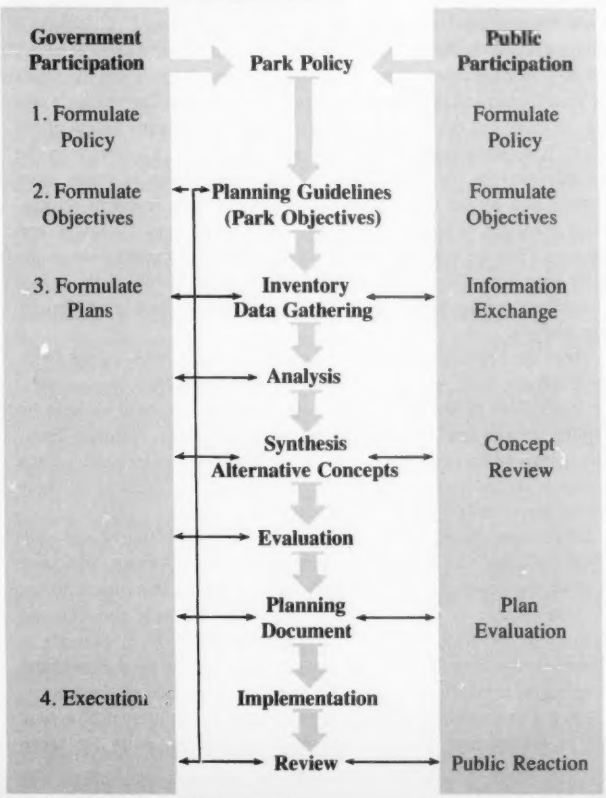
Phase III: Plan Evaluation. This phase requires four or five public meetings to allow the various interest groups to participate in a more formal review of the plan proposals for the park. The planning proposals identifying alternatives and the rationale behind them would be set out in a report (using a very simple, straightforward presentation), and circulated to everyone interested in obtaining a copy. The public meetings are to be chaired by a senior officer. The planning team generally makes the presentation. The meetings give an opportunity for people to present written or verbal briefs, for general discussion of the plan, and

Table II: Forms and Functions of Public Contact

Form of Public Involvement	Function of Public Involvement					Representativeness
	Informational		Interactive	Assurance	Ritualistic	
	To Give	To Get				
Open public meetings	Good	Poor	Poor	Fair	Yes	Poor
Workshops (small)	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Yes	Potential good
Presentations to groups	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Yes	No clear assurance
Ad Hoc committees	Good	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Yes	Potential good
Advisory groups	Good	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Yes	Potential good
Key contacts	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	No	No clear assurance
Analysis of incoming mail	Poor	Good	Poor	Poor	Yes	Poor
Direct mail from Park Service to public	Excellent	Poor	Fair	Good	No	Potential good
Questionnaires and Surveys	Poor	Excellent	Poor	Fair	Yes	Potential good
Behavioral observation	Poor	Excellent	Poor	Poor	No	Potential good
Reports from key staff	Poor	Good	Poor	Poor	No	No clear assurance
News releases and mass media	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Yes	Poor
Analysis of mass media	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Yes	Poor
Day-to-day public contracts	Good	Good	Excellent	Fair	No	Poor

Source: Thomas A. Heberlein, "Principles of Public Involvement — a Primer for Park Service Planners and Managers," Department of Rural Sociology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, 1975.

Table III: Park Planning Process



Source: Parks Canada, Prairie Region, 1975.

for individuals to talk on a one-to-one basis with the park staff to present their views and review their individual concerns.

Based on this public participation,a plan is prepared. The public is once again given a chance to comment, with public hearings held if there were matters of serious concern to be resolved. Following this, an official plan for the park is prepared.

The negative elements of public participation programs generally relate to (a) high costs in money and staff for an agency to sustain a program, (b) the increase in time required to make decisions, and (c) the representativeness or adequacy of the sample of viewpoints presented. In spite of the negative elements, Parks Canada has found the approach useful and effective as a communications link.

Conclusions. The planning process is a dynamic process. Nature is not static, it is constantly changing. While natural changes are often slow, man-influenced changes may be rapid. As a result, the environment inside a park, as well as that surrounding a park, will change. Because of this changing environment, it is essential to periodically review park plans. Plans must be adjusted or adapted to the changing world so that the park, whose future they guide, will continue to meet its objectives.

The degree of public involvement in the planning process depends both upon the general attitude of the government and the interest of the public. The central issue is the degree of trust and confidence which the public has in the management agency. The participation process tends to increase the trust and to build public confidence in the organization by utilizing a more open decision-making process. The tendency in North America has been to increase the degree of public involvement. This process has proven useful in providing additional data for officials as well as better understanding of park objectives by the public.

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Peter H. Bennett

The Klondike: A New Park Concept

In the northwest corner of North America, on the borders of Alaska in the United States and the Yukon and British Columbia in Canada, a novel and exciting Park concept is being developed. The Park is novel and exciting for three reasons: it is an interesting example of international cooperation in that it involves three levels of government (federal, state or provincial, and municipal) in each country; it features a unique combination of historic and natural values; and it is a linear Park, in that its principal section, from Skagway in Alaska north to Dawson City in the Yukon, stretches by land and water a distance of some 600 miles.

The Park in question is the Klondike Gold Rush International Historic Park*. As its name implies, its primary purpose is the commemoration of that extraordinary phenomenon in North American history, the Klondike Gold Rush, which aroused public interest in a way that no other gold rush had done. Now, 80 years later, it still has this unusual power to capture the imagination.

By 1899 about 40,000 persons, including many from Britain and Europe and even from Australia and Japan, had made the northward journey to the goldfields of the Klondike. The boom town of Dawson grew in three years from virtually nothing to 30,000 inhabitants, only to start declining in 1900 as prospectors moved on to new discoveries in Alaska. For years now it has been a "ghost town" of about 800 inhabitants. By 1904 about $100,000,000 in gold had been extracted, mostly in dust form, from the creeks that flowed into the Klondike River. Mining continued until the 1960s on a mechanized basis, and probably $250,000,000 in all came out of the creek beds.

The "Lure of the Klondike" was and is more complex than the bald figures suggest. The North seemed mysterious and even romantic, the obstacles to reaching it a challenge to manhood; and the popular press spread tales, many of them highly colored, about the Land of the Midnight Sun and the 'call of the Yukon.' It was, in fact, the best-publicized gold rush in history, both at the time and long after it was all over. But to those who went to Dawson and returned with vivid memories, and to those of us who read the history of the rush today, the fascination of the Klondike lay in the process of getting there and what that process did to the participants.

Fortunately the access route used by the vast majority of those who went to seek their fortune in the Klondike Gold Fields happened to run through some of the wildest, most beautiful and unspoiled scenery on the North American continent, so the Park is of as much interest for its superb natural attractions as for its abundant historical riches.

The idea of the Park was conceived in 1969 when, over a long September weekend, a small group of senior officials of Parks Canada and the U.S. National Park Service hiked the Chilkoot Trail from Skagway to Bennett in order to see the potential for park purposes of that key element in any future Park. It was immediately evident that there were enormous possibilities, and that because the Klondike Gold Rush route spanned international boundaries, new concepts in park planning would have to be adopted.

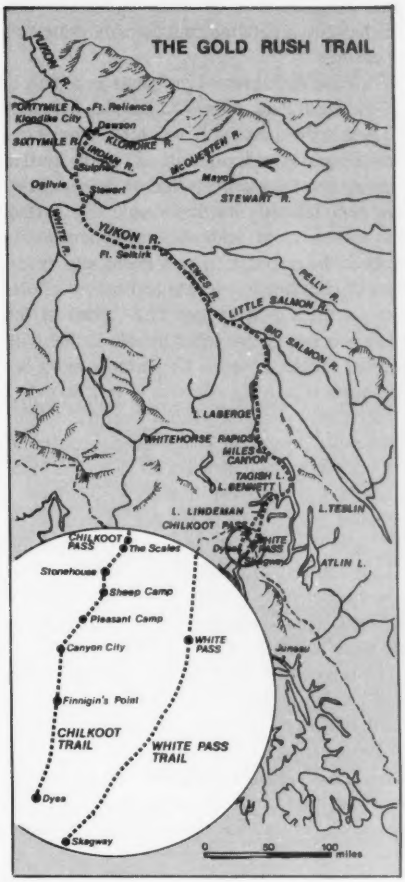
It became clear very early that there would be four main elements in the Park: (1) the Chilkoot and White Pass Trails leading from Skagway to Lake Bennett; (2) the Yukon River water route leading north from Lake Bennett to Dawson City; (3) the towns of Skagway, the starting point, and Dawson City, the journey's end; and (4) the gold fields themselves, up the Klondike River from Dawson City. In addition there would be two subsidiary elements, Pioneer Square in Seattle, from which most of the "stampeders" sailed north to Skagway, and the section of the Yukon River north over the Alaska boundary to Eagle. Gold prospecting and mining were already being carried out on a small scale around Eagle and miners from there were the first actually to reach the Klondike Gold Fields.

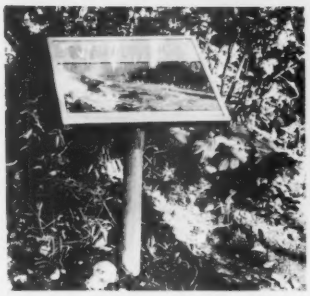
At the outset it was agreed by Canada and the USA that elements of the Park entirely within one country (e.g., Skagway, Dawson City and Bonanza Creek) would be developed by that country. It was also recognized that coordinated planning, development and interpretation of the whole Park would ensure maximum enjoyment by visitors from both countries (and abroad), and the greatest benefits and least disruption to those living along the route. So in 1970 the Klondike Gold Rush Park International Advisory Committee was formed. Comprising senior officials of Parks Canada, British Columbia and Yukon Territory on the Canadian side and the U.S. National Park Service and the States of Washington and Alaska on the American side, the Committee's role was to carry out this coordinating function for the many facets of the Park. It meets regularly each year and has played a key role in the development of the Park. The task of coordination is made more complicated by the fact that there are actually three levels of government involved; federal, state or provincial, and local. Skagway and Dawson City are key elements in the Park and the cooperation of the local people in these two communities is indispensible if the major historic restoration work required in each town is to be carried through successfully.

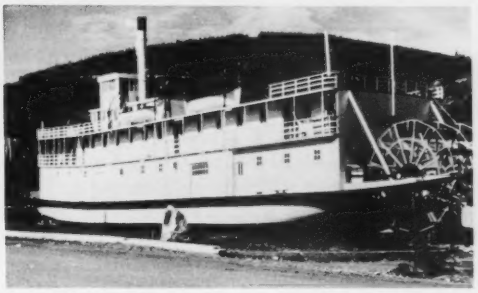
From the beginning the major trans-boundary element of the Park, the Chilkoot Trail, has been planned cooperatively by both countries. On both sides of the border there are common historical makers (to explain the principal historic features along the route), common direction signs and common information brochures and guidebooks. Each nation is of course responsible for developing the sections of these international units lying within its own boundaries.

Other examples of cooperation are the regular patrolling of each side of the Chilkoot Trail by Trail Wardens of each Park Service, who keep in touch with each other by portable radio to ensure that hikers do not get into trouble in bad weather on the more difficult and exposed sections of the Trail, and the information given by U.S. officials to hikers starting from the Skagway end of the Trail about the different and stricter gun regulations in force on the Canadian side of the border. There is also coordination in the licensing of trail outfitters in Skagway and in Whitehorse, which is the northern starting point for those wishing to hike the Trail.

*The U.S. portion of this international park is called Klondike Gold Rush National Historical Park.







Above, the narrow gauge White Pass and Yukon railway passes through some of the most spectacular scenery in Canada. Left, historical markers and directional signs of similar design are used on both sides of the international boundary in the Klondike park. The languages are French and English. Right, the S.S. Keno was used for carrying freight and passengers during the gold-rush years. It is permanently berthed beside the river. Photos: Parks Canada.

The combination of historic and natural values along the route is quite remarkable. Although the *raison d'être* of the Park is historical, it is intended that the many unusual and interesting natural features will also be fully interpreted for the visitor. Skagway itself is in a majestic setting, at the head of a long channel of the sea and surrounded by snow-capped peaks. It contains many interesting old buildings dating from the Gold Rush, the most important of which are being carefully restored. The Chilkoot Trail itself has an astonishing wealth of historic Gold Rush structures and artifacts of all kinds along its entire length. In fact one of the duties of the Trail Wardens is to try to discourage hikers from removing artifacts, which should be left for present and *future* generations to enjoy.

The scenery along the Trail is a constant changing panorama of forests, rivers, lakes, mountains and glaciers. A remarkable feature of the Trail is that in its short length of 33 miles (53.1 km) it passes through three distinct geo-climatic zone systems: Pacific northwest coastal rain forest on the lower part of the Alaska side; sub-arctic tundra for several miles below the summit on the Canadian side; and dry subalpine and boreal forest for the last Canadian section north to Lake Bennett.

Much work has been done on the trail in the last few years to interpret its many historic features to the hiker and to make the actual hike reasonably easy and safe. Some thirty ground interpretation signs have been installed in appropriate but unobtrusive locations along the trail to explain to hikers its many historic features. These signs, of anodyzed aluminum, are mounted low and measure about 24 X 28 inches (61 X 71 cm). Each has a reproduction etched into the aluminum of a historic photograph taken at the time of the Gold Rush and showing the same view as the hiker sees today, together with a suitable short extract from a diary of the period and additional historic comment that may be required. An interesting example of Canadian-U.S. cooperation on the trail is that, because bi-lingual regulations in Canada require all National Park signs to be in both English and French, the signs on the U.S. part of the trail are also in English and French and of exactly the same format as the Canadian signs.

In regard to safety, creek crossings have been improved, as has the trail itself in certain places. Direction signs have been installed in areas where the trail may be difficult to follow in bad weather conditions.

There are three shelter cabins along the 33-mile route; two on the U.S. side and one on the Canadian side, with very limited sleeping accommodation, and it is not planned at this stage to expand these facilities. In addition, there are three primitive campsites on the Canadian section. Those walking the trail are expected to be self-sufficient and to carry their own food and shelter with them. For their own protection, hikers are asked to register at the beginning and end of their journey at the U.S. Sheriff's office in Skagway and at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Office in Whitehorse. The trail is, and is planned to remain, a great wilderness experience, during which a sensitive and imaginative hiker will be able to visualize some of the hardships the original miners underwent and at the same time enjoy some of the finest unspoiled mountain country in North America.

The water route from Bennett runs through beautiful lake and mountain scenery until the Yukon River is reached. The trip by canoe, raft or small riverboat with outboard motor down the Yukon River is a delight. The varied scenery and the environment are virtually unchanged since the Gold Rush: the peace and quiet during the day and the utter silence at night, except for an occasional animal or bird sound, is an unforgettable experience for North Americans. Along the banks of the river and on some of its islands are a multitude of historic structures and relics,

The city of Dawson at the confluence of the Yukon and Klondike rivers.

all worth visiting: abandoned settlements with their Royal Canadian Mounted Police posts, Hudson's Bay Company fur-trading stores and churches and houses; forelorn shipyards and abandoned ships; and solitary cabins.

Dawson City itself, in a beautiful setting at the junction of the Klondike and Yukon Rivers, has managed to preserve the atmosphere of an early pioneer settlement and posesses many fine old buildings dating from the Gold Rush, a representative selection of which are being restored, furnished to the period and interpreted by Parks Canada. These include the Territorial Commissioner's residence, the Post Office, a theatre, a stern-wheel ship, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police hospital and jail, a saloon, a blacksmith's shop and a general store. The river section on down north from Dawson to Eagle is at least as lovely and unspoiled as the upper section and again contains many fascinating historic structures and relics.

The linear aspect of the Park is of special interest in that it embodies a variety of different approaches to preserve the historic and natural values. In Skagway the area containing most of the key historic buildings has been made a historic district to give it protection, and the town is cooperating wholeheartedly in the development of the Park concept. On the U.S. side of the Chilkoot Trail, when acquisition has been completed, the U.S. National Park Service will have control over a strip ¼ to ½ mile (.40 to .80 km) wide on each side of the Trail. The area beyond, on either side up to the skyline, is under the protection of the U.S. Bureau of Land Management and the State of Alaska. The Canadian portion of the Chilkoot Trail lies in British Columbia and that provincial government is in the process of transferring some 80 square miles (207 km^2) of land to Parks Canada which will give skyline to skyline control of the Trail. The long water route from Bennett down to Lake Bennett and Marsh Lake to the Yukon River and on down to Dawson City lies in the Yukon Territory. It presents a special problem in that, in many areas, control back to the skyline on each side of the river is neither practical nor necessary; the Yukon Territorial government is at present studying the matter to find the most suitable means of protection.

In Dawson City, the main historic area is concentrated in an area of about three blocks long and four deep bordering the river, with another area including the Commissioner's Residence and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police buildings close by. The Dawson City Council is arranging to zone these areas to give proper protection to all the old buildings in them and to ensure that any modern structures erected there are in harmony with them. As further protection, buffer zones are being established around both areas.

In the Gold Fields, the situation is complicated by the existence of many old and unexpired mining claims, and it may take some time to find the best means of protecting this area. Planning for the Dawson-Eagle section of the river has not yet started, but suitable protection should not be difficult to ensure.

There are a number of special management problems in a park as unusual as the Klondike Gold Rush Park, some of which have already been briefly mentioned. There is the question of enforcing regulations (e.g., gun regulations), which are different on each side of the border. The townspeople of Skagway and Dawson City had to be persuaded that it was in their own long-term interests that they should have certain key areas of their towns as historic areas, with all development within them being strictly controlled: the response in both towns was excellent. There is the problem of coordinating search and rescue efforts between the park rangers on the Canadian and U.S. sides of the Chilkoot Pass if some hiker gets lost or into other trouble in that wild and remote area. The present regular contacts by portable radio between the two groups of rangers is proving effective in this regard.

Getting some degree of consistency into the historic interpretation of such a long linear park is not easy. There is the never-ending problem of controlling the removal of smaller historic artifacts all along the route as souvenirs: hikers can offend with the most innocent of intentions.

Other management problems are pets, litter and fire. A number of hikers are taking their dogs with them, and these seriously disturb the wildlife along the Trail. They can also provoke attacks by bears. The question of pet control is now under study. Litter is not at the moment a serious problem, as most hikers seem to respect the strong requests in the Trail guides and in the signs at either end of the Trail to carry out everything they carry in. Fire is another matter. Above tree-line, where blizzards and bad weather can be encountered, the only source of firewood is the historic artifacts along the trail, old wagon wheels, sleighs, etc., and these are disappearing steadily. Below tree-line on the Canadian side, the brush is often dry and a fire hazard, and the Yukon Forest Service now carries out high-level air surveillance over the route. The lighting of fires along the trail has therefore been banned, but because of the distances involved the prohibition is not easy to enforce.

All these varied problems can only be dealt with effectively if there is close and continuing cooperation and coordination between the different levels of government on both sides of the border. That in itself is a challenge to achieve satisfactorily, but it is being done through regular meetings of the Canadian and U.S. officials concerned.

In the full length of the park there are already many things to see and do. But much remains to be done before the concept is complete. The park has a universal appeal and a great tourist potential. If the visitor is interested in historic relics, they are everywhere in profusion. If he is looking for unspoiled mountain and river scenery, he will find none better anywhere. If he seeks peace and quiet, and an opportunity to escape briefly from modern civilization, then the Gold Rush Trail is the place. Everyone experiences something different and memorable in retracing the steps of the Klondike stampeders.

The Klondike Gold Rush International Historic Park is in fact a very unusual park. Unfortunately its location is rather remote from most international airline routes. However it has enough features of interest to park administrators and planners everywhere that those whose journeys happen to take them to North America should make every effort to visit it. It is probably the first consciously-planned large international park anywhere, and its combination of historic and natural features make it especially noteworthy.

Peter H. Bennett is Coordinator, Liaison and Consultation, for Parks Canada. He was Director of National Historic Parks and Sites Branch, Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, during the early planning of the park this article describes and was in the first group of Canadian and U.S. senior officials who hiked the Chilkoot Trail in 1969 to evaluate its international park potential.

By Arnold Boer

A System of National Parks in the Netherlands

With a surface area of 3.4 million ha, and about 13.7 million inhabitants, the Netherlands today has the highest population density of any country in Europe, and one of the highest in the world.

Despite this concentration of people and the enormous pressures it causes on the land, more than 70% of the total area is under cultivation, and 13% is still in a more or less natural state — in dunes, wetlands, woods or uncultivated areas. Three National Parks, all having high visitation, are included.

For a small, modern, industrial country, particularly one with a fifth of its area below sea level, 13% still "wild" may seem a great deal. But nothing remains static. In the face of essential development and expansion of areas that must be heavily used by people, natural environmental values have declined. In particular, modern developments in agriculture, with scale-enlargement and intensification of production, are leading to a levelling of the values of nature and landscape in the countryside.

However, especially in the last decade, there has been a growing awareness of the need for additional nature and landscape conservation. This is felt in government circles and in society. There has been and still is a strong increase of membership in private nature conservation organizations. There has been a strong increase of work by action groups in these fields. The National Government's budget for nature and landscape conservation has grown substantially and there has been continuing adjustment and improvement of legislation in this field.

Besides the traditional policy on nature and landscape conservation — i.e., safeguarding the natural areas — the interrelationship between the natural and cultural values in the Netherlands' landscape draws growing attention.

The greater part of the landscape in the Netherlands is man-made (throughout the centuries); excluding the Wadden Sea, natural areas mainly have a seminatural origin. Protection and conservation of the natural values in the agricultural landscape are more and more emphasized.

During the past several years, under the leadership of the Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Welfare, a bold program has been started to set aside 19 additional National Parks, 9 Large Nature Reserves, and establish a new form of landscape protection, National Landscape Parks.

The proposals for the National Parks and Large Nature Reserves take a strong ecological point-of-view. These areas will be large enough to counteract the disturbing influences of their surroundings. In the past this policy was not always followed. Indeed, of the 900 or so nature reserves already existing in the Netherlands, only a few exceed 500 ha, and most are smaller than 50 ha.

National Parks and Large Nature Reserves

The new National Parks and Large Nature Reserves proposed for the system are characterized by their predominant natural character and the fact that most of the areas are already owned by the State, or by non-governmental nature conservation organizations.

It has been the intention of the Dutch Government to base a system of national parks on the definitions approved by the IUCN General Assembly in 1969 in New Delhi.

A National Park in the Netherlands is defined as: An uninterrupted

Deeler forest (left) and a beechwood forest (right), suggest the variety of habitats under protection in Holland's National Parks. Photos: (left) Jan van de Kam; (right) Wim K. Steffen.

area of at least 1,000 ha, consisting of natural areas, lakes, watercourses and forest with a special natural and scenic character and a special plant and animal life.

A National Park is owned by the Government and/or private institutions having nature conservation as their aim. Other property ownership is possible, provided a long-term management of the area as a National Park will be assured.

A National Park is designated or recognized by the Government and managed as a whole, under supervision of the State, in accordance with given directives. Purpose of this management is the preservation and/or development of the values present from the point of view of natural science, landscape and cultural history. Within the scope of this aim, possibilities are created for the public to use and enjoy the areas.

Three criteria have been applied in the selection of National Parks: 1. the quality of the area should be sufficiently high; 2. the size of the area should be sufficiently large — at least 1,000 ha; and 3. the area should be predominantly an integral whole and managed as such.

Twenty-two areas have thus been selected; 3 of them already exist as National Parks. (Kennemerduinen, 2,300 ha; Hoge Veluwe, 5,400 ha; Veluwezoom, 4,600 ha.) Both new and existing areas are shown on the accompanying map. The total surface of these selected areas is 77,000 ha (2.2% of the land surface of the country). The largest park covers 9,500 ha; the smallest one about 1,100 ha. A rough division into three categories can be made: a) Dunes (the Wadden islands included); b) Mixed areas with heather, woods and drift-sands, and c) Wetlands.

Besides these 22 parks, 9 natural areas have been located which meet the above criteria. However, they are so fragile that general public access is hardly permissible. These areas, which we call *Large Nature Reserves,* are already largely owned by nature conservation institutions and are managed as nature reserves. The policy and goal is to safeguard all of these areas by bringing them wholly under the ownership and management of the Government or private nature conservation organizations as Reserves or protected Natural Monuments in accordance with the Nature Conservation Act.

National Landscape Parks

A National Landscape Park is an area of at least 10,000 ha designated by the National Government, consisting of natural areas, waters and forest, agricultural land and settlements which represents a great richness in natural and scenic qualities, as well as in cultural values, all forming a predominantly coherent and harmonic unit. These areas are of mixed ownership.

Based on an integral view of reclamation, development and government of the area as a whole, the policy of the Government is directed towards preserving and developing the specific character of the area. It takes into account the socio-cultural and economic interest of the people living and working there, and the public need for outdoor recreation. In many respects these National Landscape Parks are comparable with the "Naturparken" in West Germany and the "National Parks" in Great Britain.

In 1975 the Dutch Government presented an interim memorandum to Parliament on the desirability of establishing such parks. The proposals are still being studied and discussed widely with provincial and local governments and the public, but in the meantime five experimental areas have been designated. This will enable us to gain more experience with such available instruments as the Physical Planning Act, the Nature Conservation Act, the Monuments Act, and various subsidy regulations. The general location of these experimental areas is shown on the map accompanying this article.

This year a final memorandum will be presented which will report experiences and the results gained with the experimental areas. The proposals have met with opposition.

The strong interrelationship between agriculture and nature conservation and the resistance of the local population mainly bring about these difficulties. In this respect it can be mentioned that a system of financial grants for farmers will enter into force to compensate loss of income resulting from restrictions on farm management because of nature and landscape conservation. This system of management grants, in combination with the establishment of reserves in the agricultural landscape, will be applied ultimately to the most valuable parts of the countryside, comprising almost 200,000 ha (8 to 9 percent of the cultivated land). At the present time some 80,000 ha have been designated, being a first phase in the realization of the system; possible National Landscape Parks in great part consist of such high value agricultural areas.

Policy implementation

Our system of National Parks is still in a preparatory phase. Realizing the system will require a number of measures:

a) *Physical planning*

The regional plans and those of the local authorities will have to take into account the incorporation and elaboration of National Parks. These plans, prescribed for by the Physical Planning Act, will have to give direction to prevent undesirable forms of land-use.

b) *Enforcement of the Nature Conservation Act*

At the moment a modification of this Act is in preparation which will make it possible for the government to set aside an area as a "National Park," which grants it protected status.

c) *Acquisition of land by the Government or by non-governmental nature conservation organizations*

This instrument will relate especially to the owners of small areas (up to 100 hectares). The proprietors of areas of more than 100 hectares will have the possibility to participate in a co-operative management plan to be drafted (see under d.).

d) *Establishing an outstanding management system as to organization as well as content*

A master plan for the management for each National Park will be developed which will result in a management plan for the whole of the park. In such plans detailed forms of management to be applied to the distinct parts and habitats will be described. The property-situation determines which form of organizational management works best in a certain situation. The Government, being the largest owner, will also be responsible for the management, but a special organizational structure for management is not needed under the circumstances. The same applies to those park areas owned for the most part by non-governmental nature conservation organizations or foundations. This situation is to be found in 13 park areas. In the case of mixed property ownership (Government, non-governmental organizations and other private owners) a co-operative (according to civil law) has to be established in the framework of which a collective management will be carried on based on an integrated management plan.

Commission on National Parks

A Commission on National Parks will be established to supervise—on behalf of the Government—the management and to advise the Minister of Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Welfare with regard to the approval of management plans, important provisions in relation to management and establishment, and approval of purchase and management grants. This Commission will be composed of representatives of the Ministries concerned, non-governmental nature conservation organizations, provincial and local authorities. It will form, in fact, an intermediary between the Minister responsible and the different managing institutions.

Data supplied by the Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Welfare of the Netherlands. Map adapted from "Compact Geography of the Netherlands."

Outdoor recreation

The establishment of National Parks is also based on social motives. Such large areas are of utmost importance in relation to social and cultural welfare policy. They may provide an educational function and, more especially, provide facilities for certain forms of outdoor recreation. In this respect the more extensive forms of outdoor recreation like the quiet enjoyment of the beauty of nature and landscape on foot or by bicycle are mentioned.

Use for outdoor recreation can become too intensive, and the natural values can be endangered. The main purpose of the Park idea then will be threatened. In each park therefore, we will have to determine which forms of recreation are possible with regard to types of activity, intensity and location. This will require the development of a zoning scheme for outdoor recreation facilities and use areas. Zoning applies to the park area itself as well as to the surrounding areas. By means of zoning, the most vulnerable parts will be safeguarded against undesired recreation pressure and this can be intercepted and redirected to less vulnerable areas, in and outside the park.

The concept of a National Park means, in the context of recreation policy, that in general all motorized traffic in a Park will be kept down. The main emphasis will be on roads for bicycles and paths for pedestrians. With regard to boating, yachting, etc. motorized forms also will be prohibited in most parts of the parks. Other forms may be practiced, provided they are strictly regulated and zoned.

Concentration points for mass tourism, as such, are imcompatible with the idea of National Parks. The same applies to residential recreation, such as second home sites, caravaning and camping on a large scale. In general the aim is to remove existing residential recreation. The establishment of visitors and/or information centres, however, is considered very important. An admission charge system for the National Parks will still have to be worked out.

Appendix I: National Parks in the Netherlands

Name (No. on map) ■ *existing* □ *in preparation*	Surface (ha)	Proprietary-Situation State	Local*	N.G.O.**	Private
Dunes (Wadden islands included)					
1 Schiermonnikoog □	4300	4300			
2 Terschelling □	9500	9300			200
3 Vlieland □	5000	5000			
3A Duinen van Texel □	4500	4300			200
4 Duinen van Schoorl □ tot Wijk aan Zee	6900	1800	4700		400
5 Kennemerduinen ■	2300				
6 De Zilk/Noorwijk □	2200	600	1500	100	
Mixed Wooded, Heather and Driftsands Areas					
7 Ooster-en Westerzand □	1200	700		200	300
8 Dwingeloo-Ruinen □	3500	1800		1000	300
9 Diever-Appelscha □	5400	3500		1000	900
10 Haarlerberg-Holterberg □	4000	1900		1000	1100
11 Hoge Veluwe ■	5400			5400	
12 Veluwezoom ■	4600			4600	
13 Utr. Heuvelrug □	2800	1700		100	1000
14 Montferland □	1900			1600	
15 Loonse en Drunense Duinen □	3000			1800	1200
16 de Hamert □	1600		500	800	300
17 Meynweg □	1500	900	300		300
Wetlands					
18 Weerribben □	3100	2900			200
19 de Biesbosch □	3600	2900			700
20 Groote Peel □	1500	1000	400		100
21 Grevelingen □	1100	1100			

Large Nature Reserves in the Netherlands *larger than 1000ha*

Name	Proprietor
A Fochteloerveen	Society for the Conservation of Nature Monuments (S.C.N.M.)
B Zwartemeer	Government
C De Wieden	S.C.N.M.
D Nieuwkoopse Plassen	S.C.N.M.
E Voornes Duin	S.C.N.M. + Foundation "Zuid-Hollands Landschap"
F Kampina	S.C.N.M.
G Strabrechtse Heide	Government + Local Authority + Private
H Mariapeel	Government
K Saaftinge	Government

Experimental Areas for National Landscape Parks

I N.W. Overijssel
II Veluwe
III Waterland
IV Winterswijk
V Mergelland

**Lower authorities*
***N.G.O. Non Governmental (Nature Conservation) Organization*

Appendix II: The procedure "Planologische Kernbeslissing"*

1. Decision of the Council of Ministers with regard to the implementation of the procedure.
2. Official consultation with regional official bodies.
3. Interdepartmental consultation in the National Committee for Physical Planning.
4. Discussion in Council for Physical Planning of the Council of Ministers.
5. Publication of the Policy-intention in the Netherlands' Official Gazette; depositing for the public during 3 months. Everyone can make known his opinion on this.
6. Governmental consultation with regional and local authorities.
7. Information-meetings and Public hearings.
8. Advice by the Advisory Council on National Physical Planning (constituted of interest-groups from the Netherlands Society).
9. Re-consultation in the National Committee for Physical Planning.
10. Final Decision by the Council of Ministers.
11. Approval by the Parliament (within 6 months).

**Decision-making procedure with regard to Government-decisions on Physical Planning being of national interest.*

Incompatible forms of land use

In a number of areas various incompatible activities have occurred. If continued or intensified these activities could have very detrimental results. Social desirability of such activities will have to be continuously tested against the main objectives of the park. Some of these activities are military use, oil and gas drilling, sand, gravel and marl operations, water catchments, and infrastructures such as highways, pipelines or electric powerlines. In all cases, such problems have to be solved within the framework of physical planning and in consultation with the authorities concerned.

Decison procedures

The Government has decided that the planned system of National Parks will be handled through a procedure called "Planologische Kernbeslissing," a program in which important policy decisions on physical planning are submitted to the opinion of the lower authorities and the public. The System of National Parks will in this procedure be considered as a part of a more comprehensive Structure Scheme on Nature and Landscape Conservation.

This procedure, which takes up about 1½ years, is now in preparation. Anticipating the results of this procedure (the so-called "final decision by the Government") a number of areas will be designated as "National Parks in Establishment." These are, of course, in addition to the 3 already existing parks and involve areas which do not have many problems with regard to incompatible forms of land-use and in which managing and ownership questions are not too complicated.

The whole Dutch National Parks system will be achieved in phases during the years to come. To establish the system in its totality certainly will take a period of 10 years.

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Dennis Glick

Mobile Seminar on National Parks

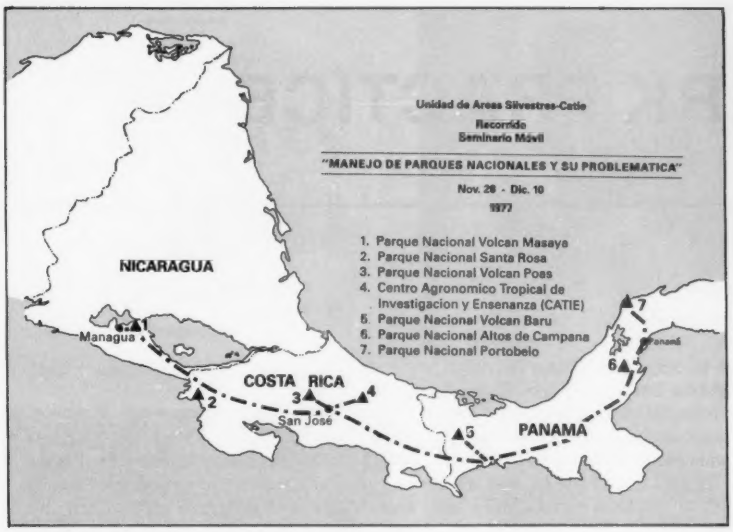
The following account of a traveling seminar is one more example of a very useful technique by which national park and reserve personnel can exchange ideas and improve their professional skills. To succeed, however, the language barrier must be minimal, and someone must take the organizational initiative. —Ed.

A decison to give up the conveniences of a comfortable conference room for the often unpredictable problems associated with international travel proved to be a wise move by the organizers of the "First Central American Mobile Seminar on National Parks." The very successful 12-day event in late November and early December last year drew together 20 representatives from 10 middle American countries for an unusual opportunity to gain first hand knowledge of the wildland management problems being faced by 6 geographically, ecologically and culturally different parks, all in various stages of development.

The idea to provide practical field experience in appropriate administrative techniques for park managers grew out of the rapidly expanding interest and need in wildlands protection and conservation in the American Isthmus. The Wildlands Unit of CATIE* which sponsored and organized the seminar has, for the last two years, been working directly with Central American countries to strengthen their institutions which are involved in various aspects of nature conservation. The main objective of the CATIE program is to insure ecologically sound utilization of the natural resources of the region and to promote the establishment of biological and environmental reference or baseline areas for perpetual preservation. An important component of the Unit's working method includes providing conservation training opportunities for host country nationals in order to better acquaint them with the important aspects of natural resources management. It was also felt necessary to give such training within a socioeconomic framework familiar to the participants. A variety of conferences and workshops dealing with conservation-related topics had been held regularly by the Unit, but the idea of a mobile seminar had yet to be attempted. The logistics of organizing international travel for such a large group has always appeared to be prohibitive. However, through the cooperative efforts of the CATIE team, the participants and the host country park personnel, transportation, lodging and diplomatic problems were held to a minimum during the trip.

Using such diverse means of transportation as airplane, boat, car and bus, the group was able to visit and investigate six National Parks including Volcan Masaya in Nicaragua, Volcan Poas and Santa Rosa National Parks in Costa Rica, and Volcan Baru, Altos de Campana, and Portobelo National Parks in Panama. Using the scenic splendors of these spectacular areas as a dramatic backdrop, representatives from each park discussed management plans and problems with the group.

*Centro Agronomico Tropical de Investigacion y Ensenanza. Turrialba, Costa Rica



The Mobile Seminar group in Portobelo National Park, Panama. Photo: Arne Dalfelt.

Besides visiting the six park areas, members of the seminar also made a short stopover at the CATIE institution in Turrialba, Costa Rica. Here they were given more insight into the exact role of CATIE in Central American wildlands protection. They were also introduced to the extensive educational and investigative opportunities offered by the institute.

The key factor though, in the success of the event, lay in the enthusiastic participation of the group members themselves. Professional expertise of those taking part ranged from biologists to park and forestry administrators, but all shared a common interest in the protection and management of the remaining wild areas of Central America. Although representatives from each country attending the seminar gave formal presentations on the current status of their wildlands, the entire seminar was sparked by lively, informal discussions between group members. It was a splendid opportunity to create and improve channels of communication between the natural resource managers of the region.

Members of the CATIE team, with the assistance of several outside specialists in the field of resource conservation, supplemented specific on-site discussions with talks on a wide array of subjects dealing with such facets of park management as the contents of a master plan, interpretative programs, methods of park protection and recreation programs in parks.

Twice during the trip, in the middle and at the end, a thorough evaluation was made of the course by the participants. The information obtained will be used to modify and improve future activities of this nature which are now being planned by the CATIE Unit.

Twelve days and 2500 kilometers after beginning the trek in Managua, Nicaragua, the weary but very satisfied group celebrated the end of a successful seminar in Panama City, Panama.

No one doubted that the organization and realization of the seminar could have certainly been facilitated if it had been held in a conference room in a centralized location. However, what was sacrificed in comfort and convenience was more than compensated for in the practical experience gained. All those involved returned to their respective countries with new concepts and ideas, a better understanding of the technical resources and assistance available to them, and an awareness that their own park problems have parallels in other countries and that different solutions do exist.

Furthermore, besides providing a sound learning experience, the mobile seminar helped to initiate a regional spirit among all those taking part to continue to carry out and amplify their wildlands protection efforts in this ecologically important region.

Dennis Glick is a U.S. Peace Corps Volunteer who serves as Regional Conservation Officer of CATIE in Turrialba, Costa Rica.

PARK PRACTICE

Basic Photo Equipment

Mark N. Boulton

Why take pictures? Quite simply because a great deal of the work in National Parks is concerned with recording information or communicating it to other people. Pictures can play a vital role in these tasks. A good picture collection — and skill with a camera — can be extremely important in many aspects of park practice.

Photographic material has been widely used in the preparation of education centre and museum displays, in the preparation of educational aids, in researching habitat changes, for illustrating research and general information articles in magazines and journals, for preparing park guidebooks and visitor pamphlets, filmstrips, park exhibits, and for illustrating talks, reports and leaflets.

In short, a well-documented collection of pictures and skill to make them as needed is a vitally important resource for a whole range of purposes.

What kind of camera?

Modern technology has made available an ever increasing array of "point and shoot" cameras that do almost everything except select the subject. Though it would be possible at this point to examine the range of equipment available, it is more appropriate to offer practical advice based on proven experience.

The ideal camera for park personnel should be quick and simple to use, small in size but flexible enough to allow pictures to be taken under a wide range of conditions. Although many useful records have been made with small automatic "direct vision" cameras (that is, cameras having an optical view-finder which is quite distinct from the lens), the author strongly recommends that the basic camera for park work — indeed for general work in the conservation field — should be a single lens reflex camera (SLR) utilizing 35 mm film (the actual picture size being 36 x 24mm). This type camera allows the user to see the object he is photographing through the same lens that will make the picture when he presses the shutter button. There are many reasons which support this choice:

Price: a wide range of choice now exists in the field of 35 mm SLR cameras and some models which will perform satisfactorily are reasonably priced indeed.

Size: the latest generation of SLRs are smaller and lighter than their earlier counterparts. Some of these now weigh little more than 500 grams — yet they are very robust in their construction.

Versatility: most of these cameras have an extensive series of accessories available — lenses, filters, copying equipment, etc. These may be added to the basic unit to greatly increase the scope of the operator.

Exposure: Almost all these cameras now have through-the lens (TTL) light intensity metering built into the camera, at least on the more expensive models, and many have in addition automatic electronic exposure systems (often abreviated EE) and are thus very much automatic "point and shoot" cameras, but with the option of using manual controls when this is desired.

Films costs: "running costs," i.e., the provision of film, are generally lower for 35 mm cameras, particularly if film is bought in bulk lengths and loaded into cassettes as required.

So to summarise, a compact 35 mm SLR camera, ideally with TTL light metering and perhaps with electronic exposure, is recommended for anyone who intends "putting photography to work" in the conservation field.

When purchasing a camera, insist upon getting an operating manual with it, and a brochure describing available accessories. It is essential to study the manual most carefully. It will describe your camera and its capabilities in detail. Each make has its unique differences although they each have much in common. Light exposure, focussing, composition and camera limitations must be understood from the outset if you are to be pleased with the results. After mastering the manual, experience will be your best teacher.

What kind of lens?

Most single lens reflex cameras are sold with a "standard" lens. This usually has a focal length of about 50 mm and captures on film the sort of scene which the human eye usually sees. It will provide the average "picture post card" type of shot! This standard lens however is only screwed or clipped onto the camera body and may be exchanged for a wide variety of other lenses for special purposes.

One of the most versatile features of SLR cameras is that lenses can be changed at a moment's notice. Various lenses are provided, not only by the camera manufacturer but by many independent companies who specialize in lens construction, often at rather low prices.

Which additional lenses should the park photographer choose? The answer of course depends entirely on the nature of the major tasks to be carried out by the operator. It is, however, appropriate to make one or two practical suggestions here.

Anybody interested in recording close-up pictures — be they shots of insects, leaf structure or animal spoor in the field — or of maps or other documentation in the office, should consider the purchase of a *macro* lens instead of the normal lens usually provided with the camera. This will do all the usual work of the standard lens, but allows the photographer to take pictures "life-size." Thus a beetle only 3 cm long can almost fill the picture area but still be in critical focus. Such a lens has the disadvantage of being somewhat heavier and a good deal more expensive than the standard lens. Less expensive "close-up" lenses are available for most SLR cameras. They are made to fit in front of the standard lens. Extension tubes and bellows are also available for very precise close-up or copying work. Even special film is available for the latter.

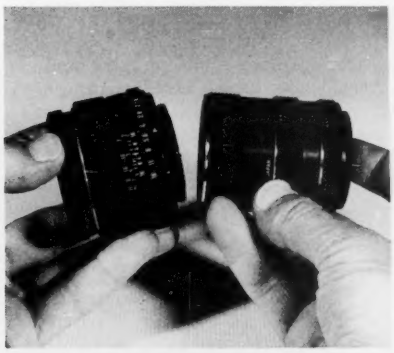
Those interested in taking pictures of animals or birds for use in displays, lectures, reports, etc., must consider a *telephoto* lens in addition to their standard one. In general a telephoto lens with a focal length of 135 mm would answer many purposes. This has the effect of bringing the subject almost three times as close as the standard lens. Thus a picture taken of elephants from, say, 30 metres with an ordinary lens would be very small on the developed film, but a picture taken from the same spot with the 135 mm lens would seem to have been taken from only 12 metres

Single lens reflex camera

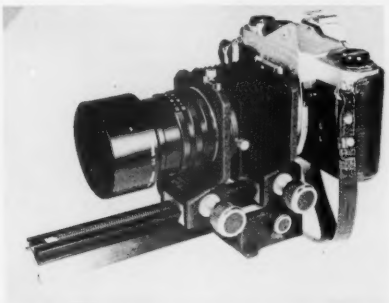
1. (SLR Camera drawing)

2. An assortment of lenses which can be used interchangeably on a single SLR camera. Left to right: 100 mm 'Macro' lens; 28 mm/2.8 wide angle lens; 300 mm/4.0 telephoto lens; 50 mm/1.7 Standard lens; 180 mm/2.8 telephoto lens; 135 mm/4.0 telephoto lens.

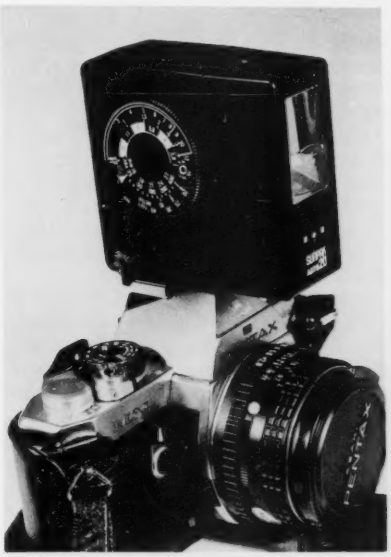
3. An ultra-violet filter not only helps penetrate 'haze' and absorb ultra-violet light but also protects the delicate (and expensive) surface of the lens.



4. The standard lens may be fitted with extension tubes for close-up photography.



5. The use of a bellows unit between the lens and the camera allows the photographer to take close-up pictures of insects, flowers, etc.



6. Modern electronic flash units are small, inexpensive and effective. This one has a 'magic' eye enabling automatic calculation of the flash exposure.

7. Film for SLR cameras comes in handy cassettes or in bulk lengths of up to 30 meters.

◀ *8. Foam-lined suitcase containing 2 SLR camera bodies; 28, 50, 100, 180 and 300 mm lenses; flash unit, close-up tubes and various filters. The equipment is well-protected but almost instantly available for use. With plastic foam and a standard commercial suitcase one can make a case to house his own equipment.*

or so. The resulting picture of the elephants would be much larger. A 200 mm lens would effectively enlarge the subject by four times, a 300 mm telephoto by six times, and so on. The longer telephoto lenses are particularly useful to ornithologists or to research workers interested in close-ups of their subjects but not wishing to disturb them. Unfortunately the "longer" the telephoto lens, the greater the size and weight, the greater the cost, and the greater the difficulty of taking "hand-held" shots which are clear and sharp. The telephoto lens also magnifies movement so it is important to use a fast shutter speed. As a general rule do not use a shutter speed slower than the focal length of the lens. Thus with a 135 mm telephoto lens use a shutter setting of at least 1/125th second (1/250th would be better), and a setting of 1/125th or 1/500th with a 300 mm lens.

Another useful but much more expensive lens is the *zoom* lens which is capable of having its focal length changed as one focuses to meet the particular situation in hand. A frequently used zoom is one having a focal length range from about 70 mm to 210 mm and some of these have "macro" systems built in which enables useful close-up work to be carried out too. If allowance is made for the fact that the zoom lens is rather more expensive, larger in size, and usually gives results not quite as crisp as its fixed focal length counterparts, it does allow a great deal of flexibility in picture taking — particularly in composition.

Finally the *wide angle* lens should be mentioned. As its name suggests this lens covers a much greater field of view than the standard lens. A 28 mm wide angle lens will include in the picture area almost twice as much as the normal lens at the same distance from camera to subject. In general this lens is not as important to the conservationist as the lenses mentioned in the earlier paragraphs, but it has its place in the complete photographer's kit. It makes near objects seem close, and distant ones seem far, giving a dramatic sense of depth. You can use them in a "fixed focus" range which is quite useful for fast shooting of a moving object.

1. Elephant herd at Amboseli N.P. taken with a 50 mm lens. 2. The same herd taken with a 135 mm telephoto lens. 3. The same herd taken with a 300 mm telephoto lens. All photos by the author.

What kind of film?

Having selected a camera, the next question which should be considered is the type of film to use. A wide variety of makes and types is available for the 35 mm camera.

Black and white film often is all that is needed for many purposes, and it comes in a wide variety of film speeds and degrees of "graininess." But, of course, color photography is much to be preferred under good lighting conditions and to record the "living color" of your subjects.

A choice must be made as to the type of color film to use. While color slides made from color positive film may be made into black and white pictures (with some loss of quality) the reverse is not of course true. One possibility is to use *color negative film,* the kind of film normally sold for color prints. The author believes this is not a very suitable material since the results are difficult to evaluate from color negatives, and making slides and prints from it (though possible in both color and black and white) tends to be expensive. Good color prints can be made from color slides.

If you anticipate using your pictures primarily for lectures, or for illustrating color guides or brochures — or where color is important for its own sake — then shoot *color slide* (color positive) film. Many types of color slide film exist in a reasonable range of film speeds. Choose a well known make, and if still in doubt see what the staff photographers for quality magazines use. The make and type of film used is often reported in them.

If your main purpose is to record vegetation, animal behavior, prepare park displays, etc. — all situations where maximum clarity and definition are required — then use black and white film. This is of course much cheaper.

If picture taking is a very important part of your work, as for instance in the collection of resource material for conservation education programmes, then the only final answer is probably to obtain another camera body (you need not buy a second lens). Thus one can keep one camera permanently loaded with color film, and the other with black and white, and simply change lenses from one to the other.

One other word of advice: whichever films you finally choose, stick to them. One soon builds up background knowledge of what a particular film will and will not do, and one also gets used to the kinds of exposures required under different conditions. Even the best light meters fail sometimes or batteries run down, and it is important to be able to take acceptable pictures without all the automatic aids!

A black and white film with the medium speed of 125 ASA (the camera manual will usually explain film speeds to you) will fulfill most all the requirements of even the most discerning user. Specialist work at night may require the use of faster films, and even modifying the processing to make them faster still. A medium speed B&W film has the advantages of fairly fine grain but enough speed to allow hand held shots with higher shutter speeds, helping to avoid camera shake. Experience has shown that it is possible to make enlargements up to 2 metres by 1 metre with perfectly satisfactory results.

For convenience, 35 mm films are purchased in metal or plastic cassettes which are loaded directly into the camera. Such films normally contain 20 or 36 exposures, the latter being proportionately cheaper. For maximum economy one may purchase films in bulk lengths of 17 or 30 metres and load appropriate lengths into re-usable cassettes (in the dark) as required.

What other accessories?

Inevitably this again depends on the requirements of the user — which is why this article can only lay down basic guidelines — and not much more.

Consideration should certainly be given to a small *electronic flash* unit, now available very cheaply. This device can produce an almost infinite number of flashes and often has the option of automatic exposure control. The flash merely bounces back from the main object and cuts off the light source when enough light has been provided! Flash units allow a certain independence as far as lighting is concerned and are particularly useful for indoor work and close-up photography. It should be remembered, however, that quite large (and rather expensive) flash systems are required if the subject is more than 15 metres or so from the flash source (the actual distance depending finally on the speed of the film being used).

Where long telephoto lenses are frequently used, or when close-up work is done, then a *tripod* becomes important or essential to avoid camera-shake, especially when conditions of low light intensity are encountered. Where the camera is being used exclusively or mainly from a non-moving vehicle, it is possible to fit a small "clip-on" tripod support to the window ledge. An alternative (and much cheaper) method is to partly fill a tightly-woven canvas bag with dry sand and then sling this over the window ledge. This provides an excellent platform on which to support even quite long lenses.

Filters and lens hoods are largely a matter of personal choice as, in the final analysis, are so many of the options in photography. Certainly it is a good idea to fit a UV or haze filter on the front of each lens. This helps reduce distant haze and offers a valuable protection to the lens surface when operating in the field. It is far cheaper to replace a filter than re-polish a lens surface! Most other filters tend to be "special purpose" and need not worry the beginner. Lens hoods (sometimes fitted to the better lenses) help to shield the lens from stray light which would otherwise cause unwanted reflections inside the lens. They also provide additional protection to the lens.

Transportation/protection of equipment

For travelling in dusty conditions where cameras are likely to receive rough treatment, the user should consider obtaining a foam-lined aluminum case. This cushions the camera equipment from shock and keeps it free from dust. Even fairly cheap suitcases can be filled with "cushion" foam which is then cut to receive the various items of equipment. It is best to make a "custom" case to suit your particular needs. Remember to relate the arrangements of the cut-outs to the lenses which are most used. Thus if you expect to use a 200 mm telephoto often, attach this to the camera body (rather than the standard lens) when you make the cut-outs.

Though ideal for working from a vehicle, such a unit is of little use when hiking or on the

back of an elephant! In such situations it is much better to wrap each lens in a thin foam sheet and to have the various camera bodies and lenses carried in a strong shoulder bag or ruck-sack. If conditions are particularly dusty make sure you keep several clean plastic bags in your case. Most modern SLRs can even be operated when they are inside a plastic bag, although the lens should be allowed to protrude when taking pictures, with its ever present UV filter firmly in place! Such an arrangement is particularly useful if the camera is likely to be exposed to salt water spray. Cameras do not like sea-water! Actually, any kind of moisture is harmful to cameras. They should also be protected from prolonged exposure to sunlight or heat.

What about technique?

The short answer is that technique and skill develop with practice, and also that an abundance of literature is available on this subject. Excellent instruction books are available for most of the SLR system cameras and these cover not only details about the different models of camera and the accessories, but also have chapters on copying, travelling with a camera, maintenance, close-up work and many more aspects of technique. The only real answer is to go out and use what you have and carefully evaluate the results. If opportunity permits, let a more experienced photographer look at the results too. Modern cameras are now so well equipped that if one follows the operating manual (and this should be studied carefully) it is difficult not to get good quality pictures. They may not win photographic competitions, but your pictures should provide clear and accurate records of the chosen subject.

What about processing?

Most color film is available "process paid" at usual processing costs, and one simply returns the exposed film, in the mailer provided, to one of several addresses given by the film manufacturer. Most major manufacturers have processing stations situated at least in the capital city of the country concerned. Black and white film sometimes creates more problems since processing facilities are perhaps not as widespread as they used to be now that color film is so widely used. Most Government departments have photographic facilities available in the Information Division and nearly all Universities have well equipped processing facilities, though these may not always be readily available. Any national park administration which is seriously concerned about information, education, and public awareness and/or active research should already be equipped for picture taking and picture using in one form or another. Experience has shown that a small and very modestly equipped darkroom is vital to enhance the potential of photography in an efficient administration.

If reading this has done no more than convince you that photography can be of enormous value in your work — and that it is not really as complicated as you thought it to be — then this article will have fulfilled its aim.

Mark N. Boulton is a British professional photographer who has extensive field experience in Africa and Asia, and more recently has been handling a special World Wildlife Fund project for the promotion of conservation education.

Nature Trails in Switzerland

Ernst Zimmerli

It was only after the "European Conservation year — 1970" that the idea of nature trails aroused any interest in Switzerland. Between 1970 and 1972 the first nature trails were created in the Cantons of Zurich and Aargau, patterned after the existing German and English models. After 1973 the number of newly created nature trails grew remarkably. The development has spread all over the country, and nature trails have become an increasingly important instrument of environmental education.

What is the purpose of nature trails?

Nature trails are particularly intended to bring man closer to nature. Through them we can:

- improve our knowledge of species of flora and fauna,
- extend our knowledge of our own homeland's geography, geology, and other values,
- improve our comprehension of basic biological processes and methods of management,
- acquire a better understanding of basic principles of ecology,
- increase our responsibility concerning the protection of nature and environment.

By and large nature trails are intended for the general public. They are, however, especially valuable for schools. They offer the facility for systematic field studies, in close contact with living plants and animals. They spare the teacher a considerable part of class preparation by making accessible specific subject-matter which can be methodically studied.

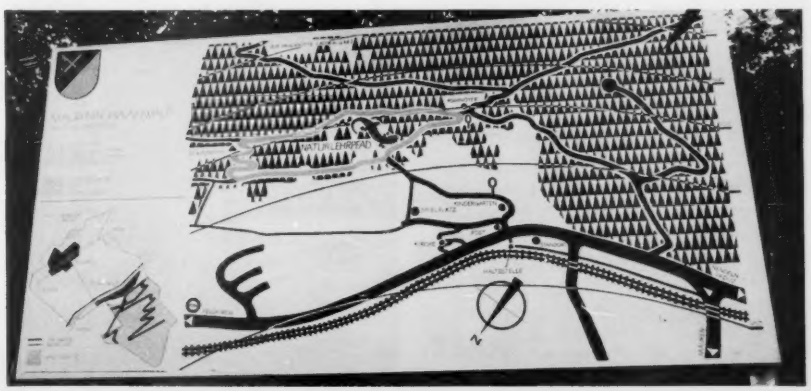
Nature trails also have great importance in connection with national parks and nature reserves. Visitors can be directed along them and informed about the important values of the reserve and such matters as management, regulations and goals for protection. Their attention can be drawn — on the spot — to interesting objects, natural communities, or problems. Compared with guided excursions, nature trails have the advantage of being at the permanent disposal of the visitor, ready to be used at little or no personnel expense.

Types of nature trails

Among the many trails available in Switzerland, two types predominate:

The Object Trail: On this kind of trail particular objects are marked for the visitor's

At the starting point, a prominently placed information board should show the trail route distances, and other essential data. Guide booklets or leaflets containing information on things to be seen at the various numbered stops should be available here, either from a dispenser or at the visitor center if there is one. Photo: M. Broggi



attention. For example, 50 different species of trees and shrubs in a wood could be marked, either with numbers only (or letters), or with the names of species. In the first case the visitor needs an identification key, which could be made in the form of a folder or booklet giving the common and scientific names, general information, blossoming time, distribution, demands on the habitat, utilization of the wood, and so on. Another method would be to print this information, possibly with illustrations as well, on display boards and post them directly beside chosen objects. In both cases the emphasis should be on the species marked and other information offered usually is limited.

The system of marking the objects with numbers only is of especial advantage to schools. This kind of nature trail is more exciting and enables the teacher to set various tasks. Morever it is less expensive and definitely is the more aesthetic one since it blends better into the natural scene. It is usually not practical to place the comparatively expensive text-boards mentioned above, other than along well-travelled trails, such as in resort areas, town parks or along popular excursion paths.

The Site Trail: Instead of concentrating on single objects this type of trail presents whole sites, natural communities, major systematic units, (e.g., the order of plants or families of animals), research projects or local history or archaeology, or other information, preferably summarized in an illustrated guide. We mark open country sites with number or letter plates, as mentioned above. By setting tasks for the visitor, requesting observations, asking questions and providing work sheets we try to encourage the visitors—especially students—to try to think and act on their own. Information boards can also be placed on site trails but because of the very limited space they offer these could only contain an absolute minimum of instructional information.

Layout of a nature trail

Each new trail should reflect the particular values and the beauty of the landscape it leads through. It is very important that the available information for the area covered is complete, accurate and well presented. Therefore, from the beginning, obtain the collaboration of specialists: botanists, zoologists, geographers, geologists, hunters, foresters, teachers, etc. We also establish close contact with the public and the neighborhood schools or other interested institutions.

There is no general rule for trail layout. However, here are some guiding principles worth considering to prevent us from making bad mistakes.

Starting point

To justify the expense in time and money that a nature trail represents, it must be used by as many people as possible. The starting point must therefore be within easy reach, i.e., near a residential area, a large school, at a park visitor center, in the vicinity of a resort or a well known excursion spot, preferably near a carpark or a railway station. Nature trails for disabled or convalescent people, situated near an old folks home or a hospital, are equally valuable. These ought to be laid out in a flat area and should not exceed 1 km in length.

Points of interest

The trail should be laid out in such a manner so as to pass by several interesting objects: for example, particular plants and animals (tall single trees, a striking stand of bracken, poisonous plants, ivy, or stinging nettles; hills of wood ants; a rubble wall with a colony of sand martins, etc.), natural communities at ponds, springs, hedges, brooks, geological and geomorphological formations along the path, gravel-pits, drumlins, or moraines, items of local historical importance such as ruins, an old mill or an ancient smelting site or charcoal mound, observation points, and areas rich in scenic charm. But take care not to crowd the trail with too many items. For a one or two hour walk, the object trail should not have more than 50 to 60 single items, the site trail not more than 12 to 15 sites.

Length

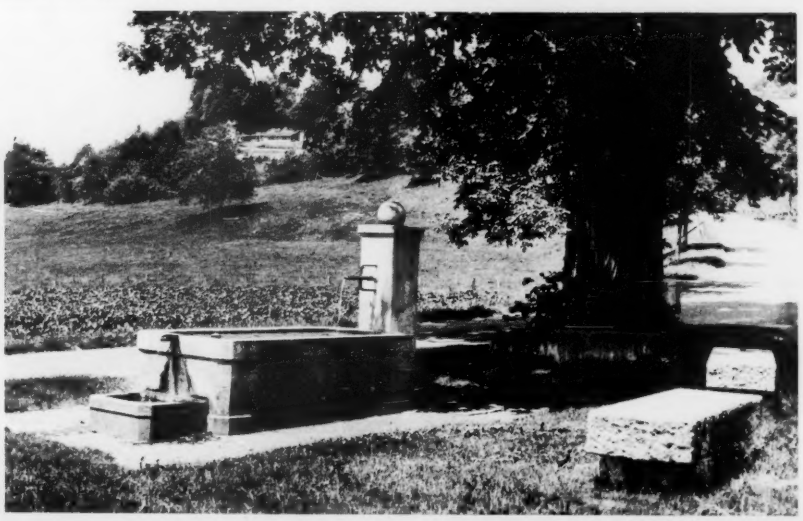
People using the trail will not only become acquainted with nature and the landscape, but also enjoy walking and exercise, using their muscles and filling their lungs with pure air. Therefore the usual length of a trail should be in the range of 2 to 4 km, which corresponds to a 1½ to 3-hour walk, including rest stops, and time for reading, watching and observing the surroundings. A trail should be marked at the beginning with the distance, and the time to walk. If the trail is longer than 5 km, short cuts must be provided, giving each visitor a choice adapted to the time he has available and his physical fitness.

Course

The beginning and the end of the trail must be clearly marked and within easy reach. In order not to increase the impact on the landscape, already existing paths should be used when possible. Choose the course with the most variety, including wooded areas, fields, banks, rock meadows, alternating with uphill and downhill stretches. For the protection of nature, avoid areas with rare plants and animals. To provide a natural rhythm of walking and stopping, alternate areas having several marked items with unmarked stretches. In addition, try to encourage and facilitate com-

Sign post at a fork in the trail indicating two routes. Photo: E. Zimmerli

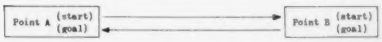
This water fountain in the quiet Swiss countryside, with a few shaded stone benches nearby, makes an excellent picnic spot along a nature trail. Photo: E. Zimmerli



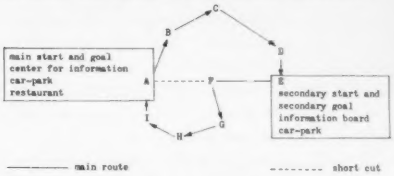
parison by marking similar looking objects or species belonging to the same order, all in the same area. For the total run of the course there are 3 basic variations:

1. *Trail conducting to a goal:* The trail leads from a starting point to a marked goal (observation point, meadow for picnics, forest hut, restaurant); going in one direction and returning by the same route.

2. *Trail connecting two points:* The trail connects two neighboring villages, two parts of a village, two schoolhouses, two restaurants, etc.; going in *both* directions.



3. *Circular trail:* The trail forms a circle, ellipse, or figure 8, alternating between straight sections and bends; going in *one* direction.

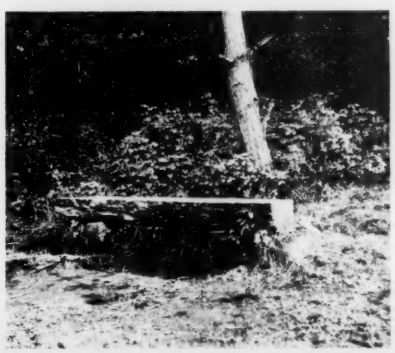


Besides short cuts other possibilities of entering can be provided at convenient places(e.g., at the edge of a wood with a nearby carpark), if the trail in question is rather long (i.e., point E).

Helpful facilities

The possibilities for nature observation on the trail can be increased and improved by various means of protection and facilities for observation, such as feeding stations, salt licks, places where birds and animals drink and bathe, roosting posts for raptors, nesting boxes for birds and bats, observation hides, etc. The planting of new species is to be avoided, especially any exotic ones. The only exception is the reintroduction of an indigenous shrub or tree in an appropriate habitat, if this species is missing by accident in the area.

Provide places to rest at frequent intervals. This rustic bench is entirely adequate. Indeed, anything more elaborate would seem out-of-place. Photo. E. Zimmerli



Protected plants along the trail and in the area are illustrated on this information poster. Photo: E. Zimmerli

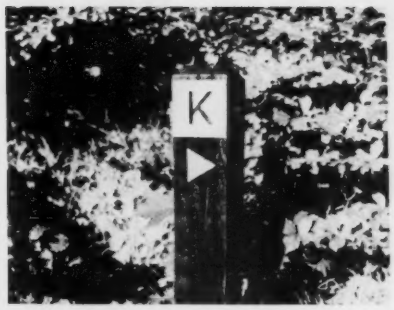
Near large and well-frequented trails there should be an occasional trash receptacle. Create resting places with benches. On some trails picnic areas with barbeques, benches, tables, as well as equipment for games and, if necessary, shelters and lavatories may be appropriate.

Materials

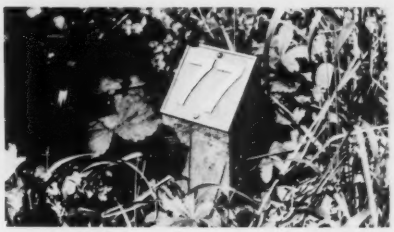
As is the case with all public installations, trail managers also have to reckon with vandal damage. We therefore choose durable, resistant materials for all equipment and installations and make them as damage-proof as possible. We use natural-looking and aesthetic materials which blend well into the surroundings. Markings should be discreet yet clearly recognizable. Markings should never be fastened directly on the object (on a tree trunk for instance) but put on a sign post directly in front of it.

Upkeep

A nature trail needs permanent care and control. Throughout the year litter and rubbish must be disposed of, drinking places provided with water, salt licks with salt stones and barbecues with wood. Where winter is heavy, in early spring check all the marking on the trails and replace those that are missing. Check all the other installations and make necessary repairs. The network of paths must be put in shape, and two or three times during the growing season the marked objects checked and, if necessary, overgrowth or competing plants removed.



Combined site marker and direction post. Photo: E. Zimmerli.



A well-made metal plaque marking an object along the trail. Note how the top of the post has been cut at an angle for water drainage and better visibility, and how the marker is unobtrusively placed in the foliage at the trail side. Photo: E. Zimmerli

Only a carefully planned nature trail, one that is well looked after, can fulfill visitor expectations. Under these conditions a nature trail will provide pleasure as well as instruction to all concerned.

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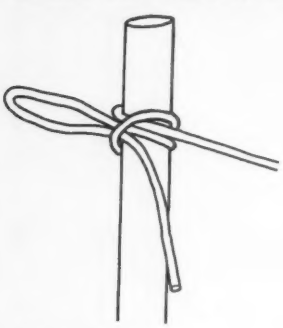
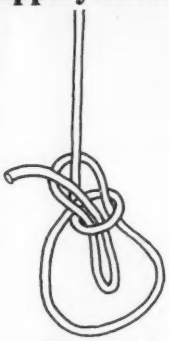
Ernst Zimmerli heads the Centre for Environmental Education which was established at Zolfingen, Switzerland, in 1976, by the World Wildlife Fund–Switzerland. He is an educator, conservationist and editor of Vögel de Heimat, *Journal of the Swiss Society for Protection of Birds.*

Elizabeth Beazley, prominent UK author and authority on design of leisure facilities for Parks and the countryside, warns that in some densely populated countries there is a real danger that too many self-guided trails can be built in the future. "Much of the best country must be left unmarked," she says, "if we are to escape cultural claustrophobia." *–Editor*

Knots You Should Know: Slippery Hitches



Slippery clove hitch



Slippery bowline

A number of standard knots and hitches can be made to untie with a simple pull on the end of the rope.

To incorporate this "slippery" feature in a knot or hitch, the end of the rope is doubled into a loop when making the final tie. This step can be seen clearly in the slippery clove hitch and slippery bowline drawings.

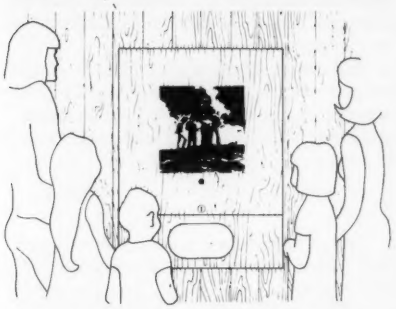
To untie either knot or hitch, pull the end and the tie falls apart. —*Edward J. Fahey*

Gentle Persuasion

SCOTTISH WILDLIFE TRUST
LOCH of the LOWES RESERVE
OBSERVATION HIDE
· CLOSED ·
Please Keep to the Path and
approach quietly to avoid
disturbing wildlife
DOGS ARE NOT ALLOWED IN THE RESERVE
If the Car Park is full, the
Hide is full. Please call later.

Photos: Gordon Fredine

Rear Screen Projection Box



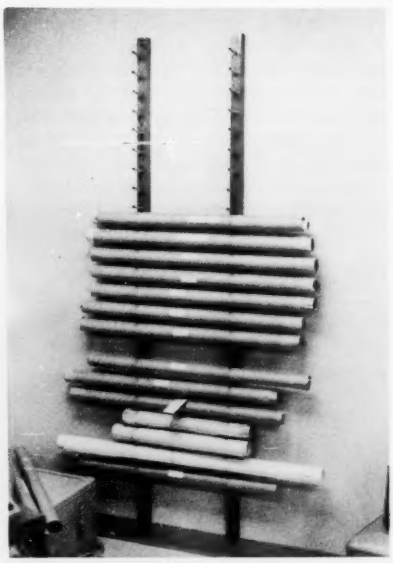
An easy but effective method for displaying slides is this rear screen projection box designed by Robert L. Schulz for the *Servicio de Parques Nacionales* of Costa Rica.

The projector and sound equipment sit in an open-top box with a screen at one end. The projector is placed in the opposite direction from the screen facing a mirror set on a diagonal in one corner. The image is bounced from the first mirror to a second mirror placed in the opposite corner on a diagonal and bounced out onto the screen.

The unit is compact and can be operated by an individual viewer without the distraction of exposed equipment.

This material originally appeared in January, 1976 in the "Park Practice Program," a joint effort of the US NPS, the National Recreation and Park Association and the National Society of Park Resources. ▶

Map and Plan Rack



Here is an inexpensive, easy-to-make, and very practical rack to hold rolled maps or plans. The two upright pieces fastened to the wall are of common pine, drilled at intervals to accept wooden dowels. This idea comes from Ponderosa State Park in Idaho, USA.

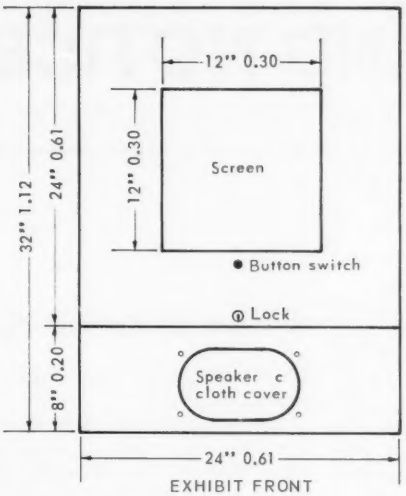
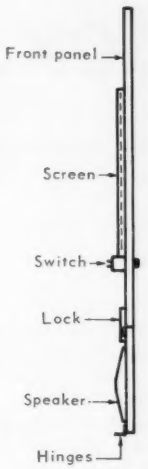
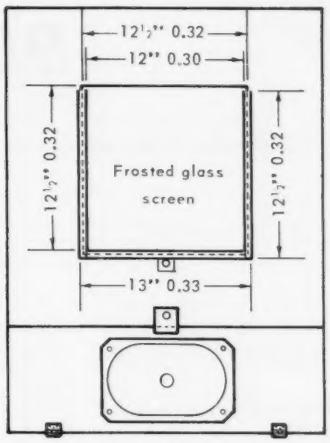


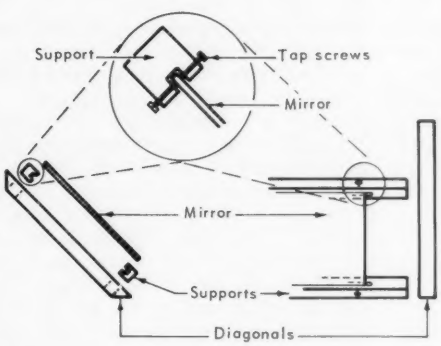
EXHIBIT FRONT



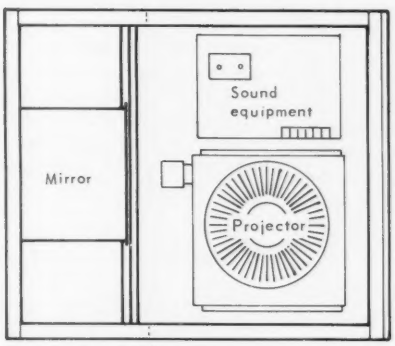
SIDE



BACK OF FRONT PANEL

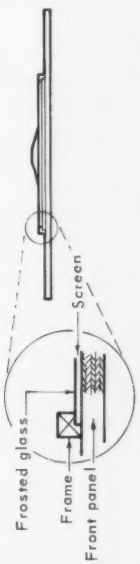


DETAIL SHOWING METHOD OF MIRROR ADJUSTMENT

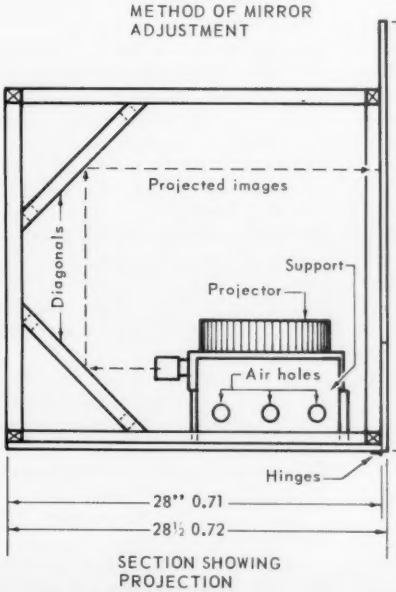


Top, back and sides open

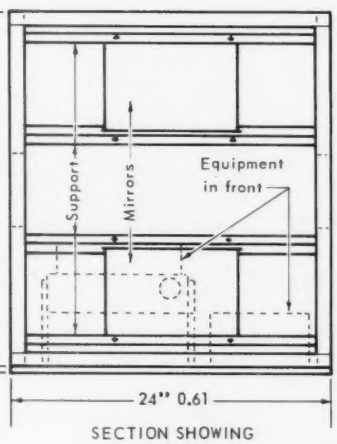
TOP VIEW



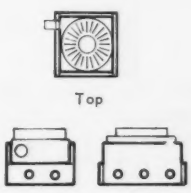
DETAIL OF FRONT SHOWING SCREEN ATTACHMENT



SECTION SHOWING PROJECTION



SECTION SHOWING ARRANGEMENT OF MIRRORS



DETAILS OF PROJECTOR SUPPORT

Build to suit make of projector used

Dimensions in feet & meters

BOOKS AND NOTICES

Park Planning Handbook. Monty Christiansen, John Wiley & Sons, 1977, 407 pp., $35 (approx.)

Primarily written as a textbook for students of recreation and park administration, this handbook places most of its emphasis on the planning and development of recreation facilities for urban and near urban parks in North America.

In Part I, the planning process is divided into four phases, predesign, design, development and actualization. The planning theory is broad enough to be of interest to most planners. It places a particular emphasis in planning recreational facilities to provide for a range of personal experiences from entry level participation through skill improvement and on to competitive participation. This humanistic approach could have considerable value in the planning of interpretative/educational facilities in many natural areas.

Part II of the handbook relates to the provision of support facilities, with chapters on circulation, lighting, water systems, wastewater, solid waste, health, safety and emergency facilities. The standards utilized for these sections are applicable to the United States and would require careful review prior to their application in other countries.

While many of the planning principles in the handbook are applicable to park planning in general, the overall approach relates more to the planning of wilderness areas, national parks or nature sanctuaries where the evaluation of natural resources and the zoning of these areas for different degrees or levels of nature protection are the central issues. — *Harold K. Eidsvik*

Recovery and Restoration of Damaged Ecosystems. 1977. J. Cairns, Jr., K. L. Dickson and E. E. Herricks, Eds. University Press of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA. 22903, U.S.A. x + 531 pp. US $20 including surface postage.

This book is the Proceedings of the International Symposium on the Recovery of Damaged Ecosystems held at Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Virginia, in March 1975. It includes 20 papers by outstanding experts on subjects ranging from recovery of aquatic environments from oil and chemical spills, lands abused by surface mining, fire, and damaged lakes and estuaries, to damaged tropical forests, disturbed tundra and taiga surfaces, and even the recovery of a city suffering from environmental decay. These well written and documented papers describe specific damage and recovery case histories. Although many lean heavily on experience in the United States others deal with problems in Costa Rica, Britain and Sweden. The book has a truly international flavor because it is concerned with common problems that know and respect no geopolitical boundaries.

A special value of this work is that while there is vast literature on the causes and consequences of mankind's damaging activities, this book explores opportunities for recovery when damage does occur—*Gordon Fredine*

European Park Conference

An informal conference announced under the title of "Parks and People in European Naturparke, Parcs Naturels, National Parks (UK)" will be held September 25-29, 1978, at Losehill Hall in the Peak National Park Study Centre, Castledon, Derbyshire, England.

The conference will bring together local managers and staffs of Europe's protected landscapes. The aim will be to exchange information and consider how conflicts can be resolved between the local population and visitors to these areas.

According to the provisional program, conference sessions will be organized under three major headings: (1) Interpretation and Environmental Education, (2) Meeting the Public, and (3) The Local Population.

Cost of the conference is £68. Details are available from Peter Townsend, Principal, Peak National Park Study Centre, Losehill Hall, Castleton, Derbyshire S30 2WB, England.

Acknowledgement

PARKS Magazine acknowledges with thanks special grants from the American Conservation Association, World Wildlife Fund-International, and the William P. Wharton Trust to help fund production of the English and Spanish editions of Vol. 3, No. 1 and 2.

A Word About Our Plans . . .

PARKS Magazine is now entering its third year of publication.

When this project began it was our intention to publish eight quarterly issues as a pilot effort. During this period the publication form was to be established, a circulation list to countries throughout the world was to be prepared and, if the situation was favorable, PARKS would be published under direction of an appropriate international organization.

We are pleased to report that PARKS is now circulating in three language editions in 167 countries and dependencies. The magazine has been well received and seems to be filling what was a void, or a paucity at least, of contemporary technical literature in the field.

As for format, we believe we have developed a workable, flexible layout that "communicates," and one that can be produced economically. However, improvement can and will be made both as to content and graphic arrangement. May we remind our professional readers that their contributions of material for publication will be welcomed.

To gain additional time to work out financial arrangements for the future, the present sponsors have decided to extend the pilot period from eight to a total of ten issues.

We are now actively seeking financial support in order to continue the publication on a regular basis beginning with the fourth quarterly issue of 1978, under the joint sponsorship of UNEP, UNESCO, FAO, the Organization of American States, Parks Canada, the U.S. National Park Service, and the World Wildlife Fund, with the cooperation of IUCN's Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas. Other organizations also may be associated as sponsors.

It is our present intention to maintain free distribution to qualified readers in most countries. Eventually we hope to develop a mechanism through which readers in the USA, Canada, the countries of Europe and others can become paid subscribers.

More details about the program will be published as soon as possible.

Meanwhile please help us by completing the questionnaire form you will find on the last two pages of this issue of PARKS and returning it to us promptly by airmail.

Thank you for your cooperation.—*Editor*

QUESTIONNAIRE

To All Recipients of PARKS Magazine

The Editors of PARKS Magazine want to make the publication as interesting and useful as possible to its professional readers. Your answers to the following questions will help us accomplish that goal. Please insert your answers and return this self-addressed form by airmail.

1. How do you rate articles we have published on the following subjects? (Circle your rating)

"Park Practice": Excellent/Good/Fair/Poor Planning: Excellent/Good/Fair/Poor Historic Maintenance: Excellent/Good/Fair/Poor

Management: Excellent/Good/Fair/Poor Wildlife: Excellent/Good/Fair/Poor

2. How useful to your work is PARKS Magazine? In what way?

3. Would you like more technical information and advice? If yes, what kind?

4. List the additional subjects you would like to read about in PARKS.

5. Please list any topics about which you would be willing to write for PARKS.

6. Please rate the articles you have read: ☐ Well written ☐ Poorly written ☐ Too simple ☐ Too complex

7. How do you read PARKS? ☐ Cover-to-cover? ☐ About half? ☐ Certain subjects only?

8. What language editions do you receive? ☐ English ☐ Spanish ☐ French

9. How many people read your copy of PARKS?

10. Do you ever make copies of articles for use within your Bureau or Service? Which articles?

11. Do you receive your copy in the quarter of issue?

12. If you are not in continental North America do you consider surface mail distribution to your region impractical? Comments?

13. As a governmental agency responsible for management of natural and/or historical sites would you consider purchasing copies at "bulk rates" to distribute to your key personnel? If so, approximately how many copies of each issue would be needed?

14. PARKS may need to charge an annual subscription fee to non-governmental readers. Based on what you have derived from PARKS what is the maximum fair subscription fee you feel is appropriate?

15. Do we have your correct mailing address? If not, please indicate (in block letters) the correction necessary.

16. (Optional) If you have no objection would you please identify yourself? Knowing where you are located will make your comments more valid in our analysis of this inquiry.

Date

Signature

Title, Profession or Position

Organization

Country

Your response to this questionnaire is urgently needed. Please fill in the form, fold, seal and return it to us by airmail if possible.
Thank you very much for your cooperation

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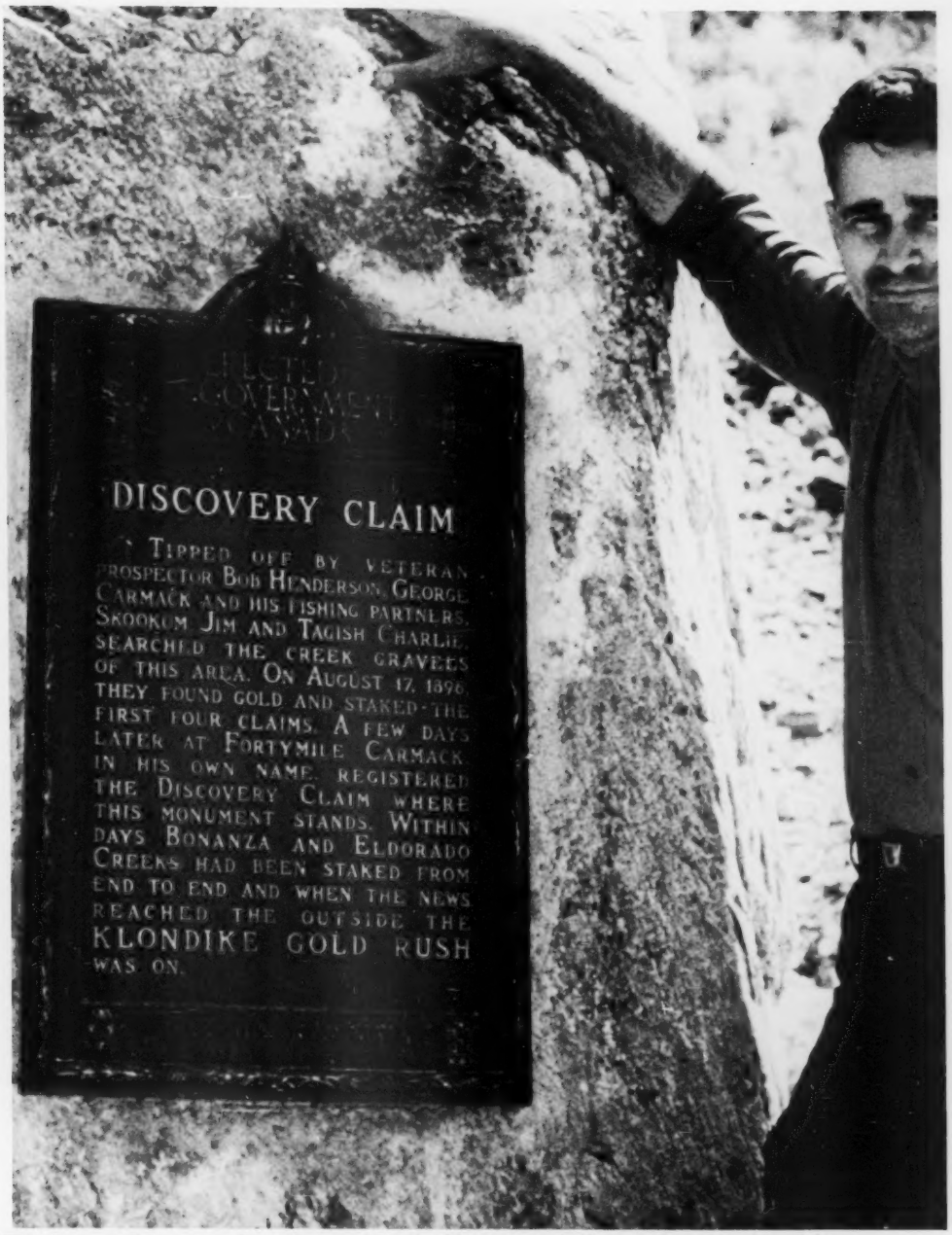
DISCOVERY CLAIM
TIPPED OFF BY VETERAN PROSPECTOR BOB HENDERSON, GEORGE CARMACK AND HIS FISHING PARTNERS, SKOOKUM JIM AND TAGISH CHARLIE, SEARCHED THE CREEK GRAVELS OF THIS AREA. ON AUGUST 17, 1896, THEY FOUND GOLD AND STAKED THE FIRST FOUR CLAIMS. A FEW DAYS LATER AT FORTYMILE CARMACK IN HIS OWN NAME, REGISTERED THE DISCOVERY CLAIM WHERE THIS MONUMENT STANDS. WITHIN DAYS BONANZA AND ELDORADO CREEKS HAD BEEN STAKED FROM END TO END AND WHEN THE NEWS REACHED THE OUTSIDE THE KLONDIKE GOLD RUSH WAS ON.

This plaque on Bonanza creek, a tributary of the Klondike river, marks the spot where the gold-rush began. The marker was posted by the Historic Sites and Monuments Board of Canada. Photo: Parks Canada.

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